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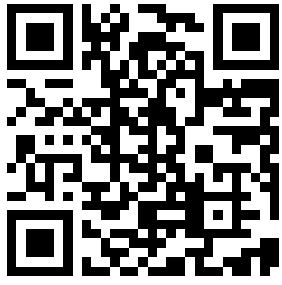

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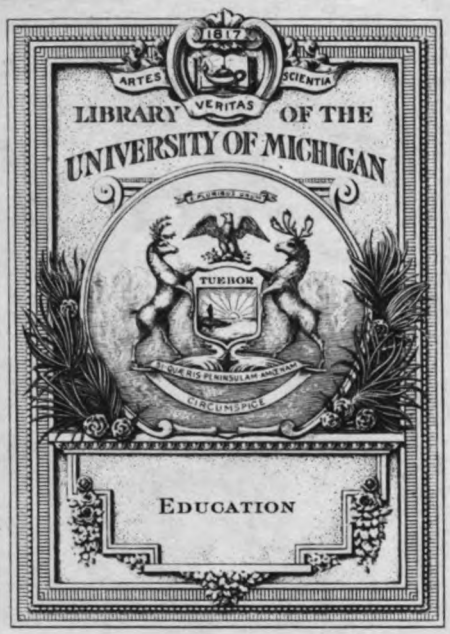

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with which is incorporated
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NOTES AND COMMENTS

WE are entering upon the New Year with great hope, tempered by a realization that we have yet to travel a hard road before victory can be in sight. To ourselves it becomes more and more evident that this is a war of ideas, and that educational influences will play an increasing part in the final issue. Mr. Drucker in *The End of Economic Man* remarks that, as soon as the masses are offered an alternative—but no sooner, the whole totalitarian magic will vanish like a nightmare. He goes on to say: "Nothing the totalitarians can do to fortify their power will be the slightest protection against the sweep of a new order which will again give the masses a positive creed instead of a gospel of pure negation; which will again affirm the validity of life and of society, instead of preaching senseless sacrifice; which will again give man dignity and value instead of denying his very existence. Not even the totalitarian education which seizes the youngest infants, and which has been regarded generally as the greatest danger to civilization, will alter the situation in the least. The youth of a country may be regimented for a positive idea and order. They can only be kept regimented for the negative and for the sake of organization as long as there is no alternative. Children can be educated to think exclusively in one direction, but they cannot successfully be educated not to think at all."

1941.

TEACHERS do not, of course, want to lead the children under their charge to think exclusively in one direction, and any idea of regimentation is far from their minds. What they wish to do is to set forth a high ideal which, in sharp contrast with the totalitarian creed, stresses the value of human personality, and to hope that this will be accepted. Even in the chaos which has for the time being so gravely endangered our educational system, this is not being lost sight of; but it is, we think, time that ordered planning for the future should be undertaken. Our own columns have indicated that the future of the public schools is engaging anxious thought. We hope later in the year to publish articles from distinguished educationists dealing with the whole problem of post-war education. Some time ago it was suggested that a Royal Commission on Education should be set up. Would it not be possible to do this even in war-time, so that on the conclusion of hostilities detailed plans would be ready? The time is ripe for a great step forward, comparable to the one which was taken in 1918. The best minds in the country should set to work on this subject, which is of fundamental importance.

Our Part.

IN our leading article on "The Public School" in the November issue of *The Journal* we said that some regard the public school as one of the pillars of a discredited and out-of-date social system, while others strenuously deny the need for any adaptation of the public school to changed social conditions. We published in the November and December numbers articles and letters from headmasters, past and present, and further articles appear in the present number. These articles agree in pleading for the maintenance of the public school in some form or other. Some wish for minor reforms only, others for a more comprehensive scheme of reconstruction. We are sure that readers of *The Journal* would like to hear something from what may be called the opposition. We, therefore, propose to publish in the February number of *The Journal* articles from writers who see in the public school an obstacle to social reconstruction, and wish for a radical change. These articles make what may be called a frontal attack upon the position of the public school. They will be read by some with approval, by others with distaste. We are sure, however, that our readers will agree that both points of view should be fully and frankly stated.

The Public School Controversy.

STARTING from a higher figure, Eton has followed the example of Harrow in reducing its numbers. One house—Westbury, Mr. C. E. Sladden's House—is to to be closed as an economy measure, the total number in the school having fallen from 1,150 to 1,066. Eton has

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been allowed to grow like Topsy. In 1862, according to the Report of the Royal Commissioners, Eton had 70 foundationers and 770 non-foundationers, total 840, the corresponding numbers for Harrow being 32 and 449, total 481. This disparity still holds and should be remembered in connexion with the annual cricket match between the two schools. Edward Thring had strong views on numbers in public schools, limiting Uppingham to 320. If our public schools are facing a penurious future, those with swollen numbers will do a public service by making a voluntary reduction, beyond that enforced by economic difficulties. Rationalization is a common phenomenon in the business world. The Board of Education might help by compiling a Domesday Book of our public schools. Such a return might provide a basis for voluntary rationing.

Numbers in Public Schools.

LADY RHONDDA, in the course of an article in *Time and Tide*, says that the chief road towards abolishing differences, and beginning to create a nation which is really one integrated whole, is the road of common education. The Nazis know that, for the first thing they have attacked in Poland, Czechoslovakia, and elsewhere where they desire to make and to perpetuate class distinctions, is education. "Education", says Hitler, "endangers the maintenance of a slave class." The first aim in a democracy must be the exact opposite of Hitler's. It must be to raise the level of public education until all men and women are educated up to the capacity not of their pockets but of their brains. The school-leaving age should be raised to 16 for everybody, and there should be continued whole-time or part-time education of all kinds for those over 16 who can benefit from it. University education ought to be available for every person who can absorb it with advantage. There is one thing which we should do quickly. We should educate all our young children together. "I hope that the fashion, which has just begun to strike root, of sending all children, whatever their parents' income, to the local elementary school will spread quickly. . . . To educate people alike is to make them alike. To educate them differently is to perpetuate artificial differences."

Common Education.

IT is undoubtedly true that these artificial differences exist and that they ought to be abolished. Disraeli's two nations still flourish among us. One of the difficulties in the way found expression when a distinguished educationist once remarked to the present writer that he would compel everybody to send his children to the public elementary schools. The reply was to this effect: "I agree with your arguments theoretically, but in view of the large classes in the primary schools and the lack of certain amenities I am sending my own children to an exceptionally good private school for little children." Under present conditions it is difficult to condemn this attitude. Let us grant that it would be well to educate all children together, not "to make them alike", as Lady Rhondda says, but to counteract snobbishness and to bring together children in all walks of life. To do this with general assent would mean for one thing that the primary schools would have to conform to the standards of our best secondary schools in size of classes, qualifications of teachers, and general amenities. We ourselves support such an advance in educational progress as would make these things possible.

The Conditions.

WE criticized in our last number the declaration of *The Times Educational Supplement* that it does not support the policy of raising the school age nor that of implementing the day continuation school clauses of the Fisher Act. We also concurred with the criticism made by the Journal of the Assistant Masters' Association that the scheme outlined by our contemporary contained no mention of "the urgent necessity of reducing the size of classes or of ceasing to appoint any more uncertificated teachers". In a recent issue *The Times Educational Supplement* pleads guilty to certain omissions from its programme—"a summary is always full of omissions", but argues that its opposition to the raising of the school age is "the more scientific" since "it is a truism (insisted upon by every teacher) that no two children are alike", whereas the policy advocated by the A.M.A. "makes no allowance for variety in physique and mentality". This argument carries with it its own refutation. The overwhelming majority of teachers are in favour of the raising of the school age to at least 15. They insist, too, that every sound educational scheme shall take note of and provide for the individual differences of children. The curriculum of our central schools is scientifically varied to meet the needs both of those children who are chiefly interested in practical subjects and of those whose interests are mainly academic, while the Fisher Act stipulated that only those children who left school before 16 should be under an obligation to attend the day continuation school. We regret that a prominent educational journal should commit itself to so retrograde a policy.

A Retrograde Policy.

MANY persons living in reception areas have in recent months heard a good deal of the dirt and vermin of city slums, and have perhaps had their vocabularies enriched by such terms as enuresis, impetigo, and scabies—the names of maladies brought with them by unfortunate children. A medical officer's remarks on these conditions among the evacuated children in his area, as reported in *The Times Educational Supplement*, appeared to imply that the children are innately bad, and has brought upon him a sharp rejoinder from a psychologist, writing to the same paper. It appears not to occur to the doctor, says the psychologist, that the Ministry of Health has somehow permitted large areas of town property to remain in such a condition as to make these effects inevitable; that the cry of making "a land fit for heroes to live in" was followed by the partial jettisoning of the Fisher Act, and of social services by the Geddes axe; that unemployment is not a vicious

Doctor and Psychologist.

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trick of the worker to avoid work; that "stern warnings" may not avail against enuresis, which, after the age of three, occurs almost entirely through what the psychologist calls anxiety; and, finally, that the chief panacea now put forward for all these ills is more physical training! We are inclined to side with the psychologist, and to rejoice at the prospect of some psychology being included in the course of every medical student.

Coventry.

MR. E. H. CARTER, in his letter to *The Times* of November 28, succeeds in saying a cheerful word about Coventry, and to us his testimony is all the more interesting because he writes as "an old school inspector". In the village in which he lives, near enough to Coventry to have its own casualties, there immediately sprang to action "those historic centres of free citizenship, church, chapel, and school (with its little domestic centre)", and accommodation and communal meals were speedily improvised. In spite of sorrow heaped upon sorrow, not one complaint did he hear. "He's not going to get us down" was the reply of the homeless to the sirens wailing again. The heroism of the women, says Mr. Carter, was worthy of a city famous in history for its long list of heroic women. To an old school inspector it was a revelation to meet the children and youths out of school, and also to read the village A.R.P. logs, "models of concise and precise English written mainly by ex-elementary schoolboys". Coventry schools, he adds, have a proud record for their arts and crafts, and he gives his considered opinion that "when the history of this war is written the education chapter —whatever the apparent loss—will rank as the most revealing in all our educational history".

Record Cards or Examinations?

THE decision of the Sheffield Education Committee to abolish the leaving examination in its schools has aroused a good deal of interest because of the alternative proposed. Sheffield is asking employers to accept instead of the leaving examination a certificated copy of the pupil's school record. School record cards have been adopted only by a few progressive authorities in this country such as Kent and Wiltshire, though their use is extending in Scotland and they are common in a more elaborate form in the American schools. The advocates of the record card say that it gives an employer and a parent a fairer idea of a child's attainments, his character, and the subjects in which he excels, and it is claimed that this is a much more satisfactory way of judging fitness for a post than the result of an examination. We welcome the Sheffield experiment because, if it is carefully carried out and its results observed over a period of years, it will provide useful guidance to other local education authorities. More than that could hardly be claimed at present, for, although we have always urged the reform of school examinations, we have invariably insisted that they can be replaced only by a system that is proved to be workable and is generally acceptable.

Official Jargon.

IN our October number we noted with approval the Prime Minister's advice to his colleagues and to the heads of the Civil Service departments to use simpler and shorter language and to avoid "official jargon". We fear that the advice has sometimes fallen on deaf ears. Recently, Mr. William Mabane, speaking for the Minister of Home Security, in reply to a question in the House of Commons about air-raid warnings, said that experiments had failed to produce "better noises capable of being made within the limits of practical possibility". A recent letter in *The Daily Telegraph* calls attention to another striking example of 'officialese'. Timber Control Order No. 17 remarks that "The maximum price for any material described in this division shall be ascertained by taking the maximum basic price (*i.e.* the price given for that material in the table in which it is described), which price is for the material delivered by the seller at the place usual for delivery by him for the mine for which the material is bought." This is a Civil Service circumlocution for "Carriage Paid".

War Degrees at Oxford.

AFTER prolonged discussion the question of war degrees at Oxford has been settled, the decree being approved by 70 votes to 39. Men matriculating before January 10, 1941, with war service, may obtain degrees by three terms' residence, but those who matriculate after this date must reside for five terms at least. Strong exception was taken to the possibility of obtaining an Oxford degree after only three terms' residence, together with a series of examinations crowded into nine months. On the other side, it was urged that war veterans who had taken the examinations might be reluctant to return to Oxford merely to satisfy a residential qualification. Though there are some inequalities in the decree, it is well that the question should be settled. The number who will qualify for Oxford war degrees on three terms' residence will be small. Cambridge has fixed the minimum at five terms, and other universities at six terms. We hope that the London method of labelling degrees as 'war' degrees will not be repeated nor copied in the present war.

Education for the Forces.

IT is clear from the article on "Army Education" which appears in this issue that all is not well with the scheme for providing educational facilities for members of H.M. Forces. According to a statement made by the Chairman of the Higher Education Sub-Committee of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, the War Office is the culprit. The Committee had offered to provide at the technical college, commercial college, and adult institutes free tuition to any member of H.M. Forces, and full particulars were issued to all troops. By the time the evening-class session began in mid-September, the names of 282 members of the Forces had been submitted for classes in technology, and 259 for classes in advanced commercial subjects, but only one had entered a class in technology, and only twenty-two classes in

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commercial work. The Army Educational Corps of the Northern Command had shown very commendable interest in the matter, but the Treasury had displayed lethargy, parsimoniousness, and singular lack of vision. The chief difficulty was that of transport. Employers and authorities regularly paid the fares of students, but the War Office would not do so. Nor had it given any ruling which would enable soldiers to obtain text-books. So the position was that a large number of soldiers wished to take courses which would equip them to be more efficient soldiers and prepare them for return to civilian occupations, but they were unable to do so because the War Office would not overcome certain difficulties. Early attention to this matter is a prime necessity.

Planning.

AS a nation we cannot boast that looking ahead is one of our gifts, and, indeed, we make no such claim. We have rather been apt to regard with complacency our alleged gift of muddling-through, which in practice often means leaving things to people for whom immediate profit is the sole motive to action. We are glad to see signs of a reversal of this policy, if policy it can be called. One of them is the memorandum recently forwarded to the Prime Minister by the 1940 Council, formed under the chairmanship of Lord Balfour of Burleigh to promote the planning of social environment. The Council recall the unanimous conclusion of the Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population, that modern industrial and urban life requires the setting up of a national body for broad purposes of a town and country planning policy. Only so, say the Council, " can we hope to eliminate the social and economic crises which have often threatened our prosperity in the past, and open the way to a full community life for the largest possible proportion of the people ". Recent experiences of evacuation have thrown a flood of light upon the dark places of social muddle. We hope that Lord Reith will become an indirect benefactor of children, as well as a direct benefactor of the adult population.

Scottish Leaving Certificate.

THE Leaving Certificate examination has so great a hold on Scottish education that, from various quarters, there has come a demand for a return to the normal form of examination based on papers set nationally and revised by examiners selected by the Department themselves. It is safe to say that the Department will not yield to these demands. They state definitely that the Leaving Certificate is to be regarded primarily as attesting the successful conclusion of a five-year course of post-primary education, and only secondarily as a passport to the Universities and the professions. They have given, and will continue to give, private information to the Universities' Entrance Board and similar bodies on the performance of individual candidates, but they do not intend to place upon this war-time Leaving Certificate a record of the subjects in which the candidate passed. They hold that to do so in present circumstances would tend to induce hardship since what was regarded as a pass by one panel might not be so regarded by another. The General Council of Glasgow University has called for a return to the normal certificate : that of Edinburgh University, on the other hand, has issued a statement expressing its opinion that the emergency regulations have worked, on the whole, satisfactorily.

Evacuation Camps in Scotland.

PARENTS are not using to the full the accommodation provided by way of evacuation camps of which there are five in Scotland, two for the Edinburgh district, two for Glasgow, and one for Dundee. A short time ago the Under-Secretary of State for Scotland, Mr. J. Westwood, visited one of the Edinburgh camps which was built to accommodate 300 pupils, but, at the date of his visit, was housing only half that number. Mr. Westwood said that there was a lot of talk about building more and more camps, but it was useless to argue in favour of more camps unless full advantage was taken of those already in existence. In the Edinburgh camp which he visited the staff consists of ten teachers, a headmaster, a housekeeper, and a nurse. A doctor visits the camp daily. It will be recalled that, while the camps are at present being used for evacuation purposes, their main objects were two, *viz.*, to take boys and girls for a period out of poor quarters of the cities into an atmosphere where a healthy life might be led and sound habits formed, and to make provision for youth organizations so that, under favourable auspices, physical training and recreational work might be carried out.

Sir Owen Edwards.

A MEMORIAL to Sir Owen Edwards, one of the greatest figures in the history of education in Wales, was unveiled quite recently in Llanuwchllyn, in Merionethshire. Sir Owen was of the breed of Tom Ellis, Lloyd George, and others in the famous band of young Welshmen who, at the end of last century, began to bring to Wales something of a sense of direction. Tom Ellis and Lloyd George brought leadership in politics and directed the attention of Wales to Parliament as the instrument for the removal of social injustice. Young Welshmen began to turn their minds from business to politics. But for Sir Owen there was another path. His field of action was the class-room, his source of inspiration the study and the Welsh countryside. A distinguished historian, he became a writer of great lucidity and appeal —especially in the Welsh language. For many years he sustained almost alone the burden of running one of the few Welsh periodicals of standing—*Cymru*. Through this he came to perceive that what he conceived to be the tradition, the spirit, the mission of Wales would be irretrievably lost if the language of Wales were to die, and so from the occasional writer he became the passionate propagandist for the survival of the language. With wisdom unusual even in a Government Department, the new Welsh Department of the Board of Education, established about 1906, selected him for the new post of Chief Inspector of Schools for Wales.

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THE DIRECTORATE OF PHYSICAL RECREATION

ONE of the least attractive habits of the Civil Service is the invention of new and unnecessary organizations with polysyllabic names. The National Fitness Council was one example of this. The Directorate of Physical Recreation, described in a recent circular of the Board of Education (1529), may, we fear, prove to be another.

Lack of effective consultation with the local bodies concerned with the training of youth, and a failure to clarify policy before attempting its administrative execution, have wrecked more than one move of the Board in the last few years. This recent circular looks ominously like another example.

The aim of the circular is to define the place of Physical Recreation in the Youth Service. Organizers and instructors are to be made available, and use is to be made of suitable premises. Clothing and equipment will be supplied at reduced cost and appeals made to young people to interest themselves in physical recreation. Youth groups catering for the social and recreational needs of young people in the 14–20 age group are to be registered by Local Youth Committees, and there are suggestions that a Youth Service Corps may be formed and a Badge Scheme instituted as a test of physical fitness.

We had been impressed by the growth of the Nazi Youth movement, and alarmed at the rejection on the grounds of physical unfitness of so large a proportion of the candidates for recruitment to His Majesty's Forces during the last war; the much heralded National Fitness Council had ingloriously collapsed; echoes of Dr. Jacks' phrase, 'physical illiteracy', were ringing in our ears; and it was felt that something spectacular must be done about it.

The Board declare that the setting up of the Directorate involves no departure from the policy announced in previous circulars for the development of the Service of Youth in all its aspects. "There is no question," they say, "of ignoring the wider interests of youth or of creating a new movement based exclusively on physical training." The President of the Board, moreover, has expressed his adherence to the policy of Day Continuation Schools embodied in the Education Act of 1921. Nevertheless, the Board will be judged not by its professions of faith but by its works.

Recent discussions of youth service have included enthusiastic advocacy of county badges, to be awarded for prowess, first-rate or second-rate, in such activities as jumping, running, throwing, swimming, and hiking. The Board of Education's Circular 1529—a document which carries into some detail statements recently made in Parliament by the President—contains a guarded reference to "the possibilities of some form of badge scheme". The new Directorate are said to be examining these possibilities. Meantime the Circular suggests measures for quickening the interest of young people in physical recreation as something which they themselves realize is of value for their all-round development. Upon such a foundation, says the Circular, must rest any badge scheme that may be found practicable. The meaning of these words seems clear. The joy of physical activity, leading to general fitness, valued for its own sake and for nothing else—that is what we want to see realized. The badge, if any, should be a mere afterthought. Are we so satisfied with the subtle influence of certificate examinations upon general education that we desire to extend the same principle to this new movement, upon which high hopes are rightly based? We trust that the Directorate will think twice and thrice before pronouncing their benediction upon badges.

The right course, in our view, would have been to call into consultation the local education authorities and the voluntary bodies concerned with youth welfare, and to ask them, "Do you think that the training of youth, including their physical training, is satisfactory? If not, what would you propose?" The reply would have been something to this effect: "The physical training of youth is good in parts. Though the schools in a previous generation relied largely on War Office drill, they are now doing excellent work, hampered by bad housing, bad feeding, and lack of open spaces. No campaign for providing further facilities for physical training can succeed which does not take full account of such fundamental things as the need for improved standards of housing and nutrition. Plans for housing reform should be taken in hand at once; provision for improved diet, communal canteens, and more open spaces are urgent necessities; but any scheme to be effective must provide for the continued and simultaneous education of body and mind."

The Report of the British Medical Association on Physical Education issued in 1934 places physical education in its true relation to education as a whole. "The aim of physical education is to obtain and maintain the best possible development and functioning of the body, and thereby to aid the development of mental capacity and of character." As the report says: "Balance of body, mind and soul should go together and reinforce each other, and the perfection of balance—bodily, mental and spiritual—can be the only true and scientific aim of education." The education of the body must not be treated as a relief from or as a mere supplement to the education of the mind. The trained athlete or the expert in games often is a disharmonious and clumsy being—the champion wrestler of the East is an extreme example. Moreover, he often shows a marked tendency to deteriorate in middle-age, since the games which have, perhaps, been his chief interest in youth cannot for physical or social reasons be continued in adult life.

In our January, 1940, number, we gave hearty welcome to the Board's Circular 1486, "The Service of Youth", and in our August number we welcomed equally heartily their Circular 1586, "The Challenge of Youth". Both these circulars make it clear that the Board's dominant purpose is to secure the physical, mental, and social training of our young people—the development of their whole personalities. A prominent educational journal has just announced in its leading article that "fitness of body brings fitness of mind". It would be equally true—and equally false—to say that "fitness of mind brings fitness of body". An individual with a perfectly developed body may be an ignorant fool, and history shows that many of our greatest minds have been enclosed in bodies poorly developed or enfeebled by disease. It is an interesting question whether, if Keats had been a healthy young animal, we should have had his "Ode to a Nightingale"!

What we want is not boys and girls with big muscles, trained in athletic performance, and able to exhibit badges announcing their successes in feats of speed or of endurance —not trained athletes, but boys and girls whose minds and bodies have been developed together, individuals with balanced bodies and balanced minds. In some form or other however tentative, it is the Day Continuation School that we want, rather than a Directorate of Physical Recreation.

THEN shall our youth dwell in a land of health amid fair sights and sounds, and receive the good in everything; and beauty, the effluence of fair works, shall flow into the eye and ear, like a health-giving breeze from a purer quarter, and insensibly draw the soul from earliest years into likeness and sympathy with the beauty of reason.

PLATO, Rep. C.401.

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THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

By M. L. JACKS, M.A., Director of the Department of Education, University of Oxford

IT is probably unnecessary to-day to argue the case for the training of all teachers. A quarter of a century ago that case would have needed a good deal of argument, but to-day, except in a few die-hard circles, it is commonly accepted, and most thoughtful men and women would agree that, as we do not hand over the bodies of our children to the ' born ' but untrained doctor, so we should not hand over their minds and immortal souls to the ' born ' but untrained teacher (even if there were enough of the latter to go round). But, though this case is commonly accepted, it is not yet generally acted upon—either by parents or by leading authorities in education. Parents, it is true, often have no choice in the matter, and it may well be that the only school within reach of their homes and their purses has an untrained staff. Headmasters, headmistresses, and other educational authorities can do more, and the cause of the trained teacher needs their *practical* support. At present that support is not forthcoming, and untrained teachers (if that is not a contradiction in terms) are being appointed to important posts, for a variety of reasons. There is the deep-seated and long-established suspicion of the content of a training course, as something quite out of touch with reality : there is bitter experience of some of the products of such a course—men and women knowing everything and knowing nothing, full of a half-baked psychology and a tough and ill-digested methodology, skilled technicians but defective human beings : there is an uneasy feeling that many of the students in university training departments are those who have not distinguished themselves in their undergraduate careers and are seeking a diploma as a makeweight for the lack of other qualifications, and that the material is, therefore, poor : there is the fact that many of those who are now at the top of the tree in the teaching world are themselves untrained : there is the apparent efficiency with which many untrained teachers do their work—examination results are satisfactory, discipline is maintained, matches are won, and the question whether *educationally* this is good enough, and whether we are not too easily satisfied with a low standard, is never raised. These are some of the reasons why many influential teachers, while paying lip-service to training, take little notice of it in making their appointments. It is unfortunate and damaging to the cause of training, that a trained teacher in a primary school still earns less than an untrained teacher in a secondary school. The ideal is that in this matter the profession should be unified and no teacher should be appointed to any school, public, secondary or primary, without training, and, if headmasters and headmistresses (particularly of public and secondary schools) would adopt this as a principle, they would, I believe, be doing one of the most signal services to education that has been done for many years. How is this ideal to be realized ? Mainly by improvements in the training colleges and training departments. We may usefully consider some weaknesses in the present position and some possible reforms.

I would suggest in the first place that the very phrase ' The Training of Teachers ', which we have accepted as descriptive of our work, has much to answer for. It suggests a two-fold and most undesirable limitation, and, though it may have been appropriate at one time, it is appropriate no longer. The word ' training ' suggests something narrow, purely technical, and specific : we think of training an athlete for a race, or a pet dog to do its tricks : and there is at least a suggestion that the trained teacher has mastered the bag of tricks laid up in the training college or training department. Nothing, of course, is further from the truth. ' Teacher ' again bears too limited a connotation : it smacks of the dominie's desk and the *ex cathedra* attitude, and it ignores the much more important part of the teacher's work which is done outside the class-room and effected by the elusive influence of personality on personality. To-day it is not teachers whom we wish to train, so much as educationists whom we wish to prepare. We have learnt in our schools that education is more than teaching, but we have not yet learnt the lesson in our training institutions : we are training for the schools of a generation ago : when the curriculum was limited to the three R's (and their equivalents), teaching was largely a matter of technique which could be taught : there is a ' methodology ' of teaching, but there is no ' methodology ' of education. It was undoubtedly easier to train a teacher when his task was to make a literate people : it is much more difficult now that his task is to make a cultured people.* For this task the possession of a broad culture in himself is the first essential, but the curriculum of many training colleges and departments is so dependent on the earlier and out-of-date conception of training that, amid a welter of professional subjects and examinations, little time is left for the acquisition of that general culture and philosophy of life which is so crying a need.

The criticism that training courses are " too theoretical " probably fails to express the real objection of the critic : what he probably means is that the theory is wrong. " To recommend the separation of practice from theory," said James Mill in his article on Education, " is simply to recommend bad practice " : and there is a good deal of bad practice in our schools for this reason. But we must know what we mean by the " theory of education ", and we have been remarkably uncertain and vague. It has most commonly been identified with psychology in some form, and a special branch of psychology has been invented, Educational Psychology, to fill the gap in the syllabus. But the theory of education is not psychology, though it inevitably makes some use of this ' science '. It is most clearly seen if we study some educational system constructed on paper and built up from fundamental principles : our own educational system is a haphazard growth and has no theoretical basis —we shall search in vain there : but the system outlined by Plato in the *Republic* (and to a lesser degree the schemes of Locke or Rousseau or Herbert Spencer or other great thinkers) is the expression of a theory throughout : we are recalled in studying Plato to first principles and first questions—those questions which every teacher ought to ask and very few do ask : and here we have a theory of education which will serve as a valuable starting-point for theoretical discussion and for practical testing. The prescription of such a text would have the additional advantage of bringing the study of theory within a manageable compass.

I have said that theory involves psychology : Plato's scheme, like any intelligible scheme, is built on a psychological basis. But psychology is as fascinating as it is inexact, and easily assumes dangerous proportions in a training course. Advanced and technical psychology is certainly not needed. But every effective teacher should be something of a psychologist for two reasons : in the first place, he will quickly find that it is not Latin or Mathematics that he will be teaching, but John ; his reaction to the inevitable discovery that John doesn't want to learn Latin, will be to shift his attention from his subject to his pupil, and to study John, and it will help him if he has done something along these lines already, and learnt not only to know something about children, but also to treat them as children and not as adults in embryo (one of our most besetting sins) : and in the second place, education is much more an affair of the interaction of personalities than of

* See an article by Dr. H. G. Stead in **The New Era in Home and School**, September—October, 1940.

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technical skill, and the teacher in training should be master of enough psychology to make himself as fully developed and as effective a personality as he can be. The psychology here involved is comparatively elementary, and at this stage I should go no farther: at a later stage, after some practical experience of teaching, the time may be ripe for something more advanced.

But, if a training course must have this psychological basis, it must also have a social basis. The teacher needs to be at home, not only in the fairyland of childhood, but also in the matter-of-fact world of society: and it is perhaps here that he most frequently fails, and his failure can most frequently be put down to his training. One of the most urgent tasks in the training of teachers is to enlarge the world in which so many teachers grow up and to break the vicious circles in which so many move. The segregation of prospective teachers in training colleges is a highly unfortunate feature in the situation: these constitute a society of their own, and their contacts with the larger society which they will eventually serve are limited and infrequent. The vicious circle of the elementary school—secondary school—training college (largely staffed by the elementary school)—and so back to the elementary school, is paralleled by the equally vicious circle—preparatory school—public school—university—and so back to the public school: and these circles never intersect. Two separate societies are formed, of men and women engaged in the same task but ignorant of each other's work: and outside, and largely apart from them, is the great society for which they exist. Close association of every training college with a university would go some way to remedy the first of these defects, and a scheme whereby teachers for *all types* of school were trained together would lessen the second. By 'close' association I mean more than a mere 'examinational' association; each training college should form an integral part of a university, sharing in its life and enjoying the stimulus of its companionships: such association, in addition to the intellectual and spiritual enlargements it would ensure, would have valuable by-products in raising the standard for admission to the training colleges, and thus reducing the time spent on continued academic education (to the detriment of professional training), and also in giving to the teacher's certificate something of the status of a university degree. (My own view is that every teacher should take a degree course before professional training, but perhaps that is at the moment Utopian.) To train all teachers together for the greater part of the course (with groups specializing for primary, secondary, technical schools, &c.) would be perfectly possible, and would go far to break down the barriers between the various branches of the profession. An important element in this common course should be a thorough study of the present national system of education (including those schools which are outside the system), with enough history to understand it: this would be a much more valuable subject than the history of education which tends to become purely academic. The practical part of this study should be direct contact with as many different types of schools as possible, and with all those other institutions (Local Education Authorities, Boys' and Girls' Clubs, Juvenile Instruction Centres, Juvenile Advisory Committees, After-Care Committees, Youth Committees, Scouts and Guides) which have to do with the welfare and instruction of boys and girls. This, in itself, would serve as a valuable introduction to the great society, and would have the effect of protecting the young teacher against isolationism and giving him a sense of sharing in a widespread co-operative enterprise for the service of the community. But we should go farther than this. The educational services are only one aspect of that society, which is the social heritage of every child and for which it is the teacher's business to prepare him. I fully concur with the suggestion made by Miss Catherine Fletcher in a recent article* that the sound approach to Society for the student in training is through the study (together with first-hand experience) of civic and public services, food supplies, factories, communications, local councils, amusements, church-work, and all the other communal activities of the district: and that this study should take the place of such subjects as history, geography, general science, the history of education, and others, which commonly form part of the training college curriculum: indeed, a considerable part of methodology might with advantage be sacrificed to this more vital need.

One of the chief advantages of a training course should be the opportunity it affords for *thinking about teaching*. "Think what you are doing" is a very common and a very salutary piece of advice; but the young teacher has very little time for thinking what he is doing, his time is all taken up with the doing, and he is too busy teaching to be able to think about education. The time must be given him while he is training, and most courses neither give the time nor the material. The material may be partly provided in the kind of philosophical studies which I have already recommended, and the time may be stolen from lectures and the study of specific "subjects" (we tend to become dangerously subject-ridden), and devoted instead to discussing, in quite small groups, the overruling questions, "What is it all for? What is the sense of it? What is the ultimate objective?" The answers to these questions will be found, and our teachers will be enabled to see life steadily and see it whole, only if some synthesizing force can be supplied to bind together the analytical welter of training-course studies. These at present form a patchwork quilt; they should form a patterned tapestry. The teacher trained in patchwork will be a patchwork teacher, and his pupils will grow up with a patchwork conception of life. The tapestry-trained teacher will weave a tapestry out of his school-life, and will see that as only part of a wider tapestry woven by humanity: and his pupils will find that life makes sense. The golden thread has sometimes been found in conceptions of citizenship, or the development of the individual, or self-realization; but none of these conceptions is adequate. The only real synthesis is to be found in a religious view of life and in a Christian philosophy of education. I should not hesitate to make the exposition of such a philosophy an integral part of the course: the students could take it or leave it, but I venture to think that the great majority would welcome it gladly. Such *thinking about education* would be thinking to some purpose.

I have been able to deal only with certain fundamentals of the training-course. Much more might be said about the curriculum (and particularly about the place to be occupied in it by physical education), but space forbids. Such proposals as I have made would involve a complete reorientation of the whole business of training. The objective would be different; it would be the production of the right type of men and women, rather than of the technical expert: "men are men," said John Stuart Mill, "before they are lawyers, or physicians or merchants or manufacturers" (we might add "or teachers"); "and if you make them capable and sensible men, they will make themselves capable and sensible lawyers or physicians" (or teachers). The curriculum would be different. And the methods would be different. There would have to be much more tutorial work, and fewer lectures. This would mean a larger staff, and the problem already acute, of keeping the staff in touch with the school-world would be proportionately increased. The longer men and women serve on the staff of a training college or training department, the less they know about the schools for which they are preparing their pupils. My own suggestions for dealing with this difficulty are frequent sabbatical terms, to be spent in a school either as a full member of the staff or in the capacity of an observer, and occasional interchanges with members of a school staff: both partners to the arrangement would profit by it.

There remains the question of *when* training should be given. It is commonly assumed that this should be *before* teaching begins. But need this always be so? Apart from

* **The New Era in Home and School**, September—October, 1940.

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the difficulty of finding time in a course of reasonable length for all that should be included, there is the important consideration that it is only after experience that much training becomes really valuable. It is after some years of teaching that a teacher really knows the questions he wants to ask: psychology is no longer an academic study, but has become the practical politics of the class-room: and to be able to return now for a term or a year to the atmosphere of the university, to be able to meet there its philosophers and its historians, its specialists in every subject, and to be able to discuss experiences and methods with teachers similarly returned from every type of school, would be an invaluable and an illuminating experience. What is needed is something like a Staff College in Education. There is no reason why the university departments of education should not offer such facilities to practising teachers now, as the Oxford University Department is prepared to do. But this would only be the first step towards the working out of a fully-organized scheme. The *curriculum vitae* for a fully qualified teacher that I should like to see is this: first, a completed secondary-school course: then a university course, followed by a year's professional training and the winning of a Preliminary Certificate or Diploma; the course for this would be such as I have outlined above; after this there would be three or four years' teaching experience, during which the student would be a full-time member of a school staff but would still keep in touch with the training department. Finally, he would return for a further course in which his work might take the form of a thesis on some particular aspect of educational practice or theory, and which would be recognized by a Higher Diploma on its successful completion; this Higher Diploma would be an acknowledged passport to the higher posts in the profession, and those who did not aim at these could be content with the Preliminary Diploma. For the fully qualified teacher, the examination for his degree would be the Preliminary, the examination for the First Diploma the Intermediate, and the Examination for the Higher Diploma the Final. Perhaps this is to cry for the moon: if so, we must cry till the moon comes down.

THE TEACHING LIFE

II.—THE GIRLS PLAY FOOTBALL

By "MARTHA MOSS"

(*Physical education, you might say, is scarcely the home territory of a young woman who was ostensibly hired to teach French. But in a far-away Highland county, and in a school staffed as an intermediate but run as a secondary, she who is an hireling is expected to do many jobs for her sheep. In this way, she finds herself not only the whole department of French from Class I to Class VI, but half of the department of English as well; she dabbles distractedly in History and Geography; and, since the physical training instructor was called up last year, she has found the letters "Girls' P.T." on her already mountainous time-table. She bends, but does not break.*)

IT was the woebegone faces of my girls which moved me to pity. To be sure, in my stony pedagogical heart there had been too much triumphant joy of late, for, since our village was invaded by a swarm of Indian soldiers and hundreds of mules, we have had to surrender our gymnasium. At the thought of two spare periods in the week, I had rubbed my hands and sung songs under my breath. But, when I had gathered all my girls into the French class-room and seen the happy faces lengthen into masks of despondency, I hied me to the window and looked out at the weather. It was apparently serene, for high above the rusty line of the Ord, dotted with the cloud-like blobs that were sheep, the sun reigned in an unspeakably blue sky. The distant hills of Ross showed in a violet haze on the horizon; black against the sky, atop of a lofty plateau, a crofter was carting peats; the Highland cattle grazing on the hilly pasture just beyond the village roofs were patches of russet-red, and the grass under their hooves was green—faery-green, like the grass of Tir-nan-Og. Between village and school, there stretched before my eyes a broad, uneven expanse of sunny gravel, across which clumped a horse on its way to the smithy; in the centre, a cock and his hens were busily scratching and pecking, while around them scurried a band of pied wagtails and a hopping company of sparrows, all of whom were disputing the remains of lunch-time "pieces" with a snow-white flock of gulls. I looked at the sunshine and was deceived, for I went to my cupboard, pulled out a football, and announced:

"It's such a beautiful day that we can have gym. in the playground."

Like a flock of excited starlings my girls followed me to the school porch, where the warm air was full of the smell of peat-bog under the sun. We tramped round the corner of the building, came in full view of the Loch lying below among the pines, and . . . met the wind. A howl of surprise burst from my flock.

"Woo-oo-oo! It's cold!"

For the autumn wind, blowing steadily from hills already snow-capped, was finding the chinks in our armour. This called for vigour.

Briskly, I set the class in motion, transformed it to a mass of whirling arms and legs, shouted, blew my whistle, organized dodge-ball and other games—and suddenly ran out of inspiration.

"What other game can we play?"

"Oh, please, football!"

"What? Football? But girls can't play football."

"Oh, yes. Please, we'd like to."

Somewhat forlornly I gaze at the four boulders which mark the goals when our ramping, howling mob of tackety-booted boys play before and after school. But my girls are shivering.

"All right. Football it is."

We choose sides and I kick off. Immediately the ball is pounced upon by a bunch of what I can only describe as hopelessly entangled arms and legs, and for a long time it is not seen again.

From the local drill hall adjoining the playground, an Indian saunters out and solemnly pegs up on the fence an immense pair of khaki trousers; he then places his elbow on the fence, his chin on his elbow, and remains to watch the turmoil.

My girls are out for fun, and if ever there was all-in football, this is it. Alix approaches the ball with the speed of a chamois, aims a flying kick, misses by two feet, and is carried by the zeal of her play into the school cabbage-patch. Chrissie, a diminutive child from the loneliest village in the county, has a more patient technique, for, having chased the ball far out of the reach of other players, she bobs down, steadies it with her hands, takes a run at it, registers a remarkable miss, and sits down in a cloud of dust. Almost helpless with laughter, I blow my whistle and expostulate, but the wind carries my words over the roof of the school, and the advancing horde is off again with the ball.

Down at the far end of the pitch, they are brought up by the furious onrush of the opposing team. There is more dust, a wild waving of arms, and then a hullabaloo which brings five more Indians out of the drill hall to stand open-mouthed at the fence.

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Be it the keen wind, be it excess of laughter, the tears are running down my face, but I whisk them off and run to the scene of battle. It would appear that Dorothy and Anna, having met with terrific impact, stooped simultaneously and grabbed the ball, for which they fought like wild-cats, while the others stood by and gabbled like fish-wives. Having sorted out this entanglement, I kick off anew, and amid the excited cheers of *nine* Indians the teams go streaking up the pitch.

And here emerges a star, for a certain long-legged child named Janet has gained possession of the ball, and is off with it at an incredible speed, her too-tight skirt kilted up in either hand, her feet twinkling among the gravel. The defenders rush forward; she dodges them, launches a majestic kick which carries the ball past a spread-eagled and shrieking goalkeeper, scores a glorious goal and is acclaimed by a cheer which informs me that the Indians are now about fifteen in number and are waving their towels in obvious delight.

(Not one of us knows anything about the thing called 'off-side'.)

The other team is aching for revenge. Alix's left stocking has fallen down, but she barges across the pitch with an expression of almost masculine truculency. Emily's black curls are spread around her head like the wool of a Fuzzy-wuzzy, and Chrissie's long, fair plaits have discarded a pair of blue ribbons now wafting carelessly among the flying feet. Faces are red and radiant, eyes sparkle with lively fun; red lips are parted in joyous laughter as the ball soars out of the playground or scatters the now retreating hens into a squawking rout. Everybody is anxious to shine, but nobody's feet will behave as desired, and at every grotesque blunder the wind carries us a gust of Hindu laughter.

Terrible football! But what fun!

The defeated side is desperate. It suddenly learns the value of passing the ball one to another, and goes swinging towards the opposing goal in all the triumph of its new tactics. The defenders are puzzled, as the ball zigzags up the pitch and is finally sent flying between the boulders.

The Indians go wild. They huzza and whistle and shake hands with each other until the smith pokes his black face out of the smithy and sundry nervous old villagers appear at their doors.

But the janitor's whistle blows.

P.T. is over, and we troop back into school, dishevelled as witches, happy as larks.

Over the playground, the dust settles slowly. The cock leads his dames back to the scratching-grounds; the sparrows whirr to earth; the wagtails land and resume their trotting; the gulls wheel and swoop; and the turbaned spectators return regretfully to their barrack-room chores.

* * *

Postscript at 4.30 *p.m.*

Be it known that when I let the girls play football, I "started something". The Head has just been here, and (as my Cockney landlady used to say) "from what I gleans" there has been a mêlée after school, in which girls fought with boys for possession of the playground ball. At all events the cookery-room window is broken, a boy is off home with a bleeding nose, the fence around the cabbage-patch is half-flattened . . . and the football has been commandeered by the girls. Even though it *is* burst.

I think I shall have to revise some of my ideas about the "naturally submissive nature" of the fair sex.

ARMY EDUCATION

From A CORRESPONDENT

VERY soon after the war began the camp-followers were queueing up for action. The Navy, Army, and Air Force Institutes (N.A.A.F.I.) rolled out the barrel on a big scale, the Entertainment National Service Association (E.N.S.A.) mobilized scores of concert parties, Comforts Schemes were rapidly promoted, and the Army Welfare Department made its plans for helping the troops in their personal and domestic difficulties. But at that same critical and urgent moment Army Education packed up and went home.

Plans had been devised, before the war began, to create an educational service for the militia, and in the preparation of this scheme all the providing bodies of adult education had agreed to pool their resources and to organize a full service of educational facilities for the new citizen army. The responsibility for shelving that plan when war broke out is a divided one, but it can be largely assigned—as can so many of the educational calamities of this war—to the indifferent leadership of the Board of Education.

Under the pressure of educational opinion, however, the Fighting Services soon recognized the need for educational facilities, and there was shortly improvised that elaborate machine called the Central Council for Adult Education in H.M. Forces (At Home)—a machine equipped with the usual regional committees. The aggregate of lectures and courses provided through that machinery in the last year is not impressive. In some regions, Birmingham, for example, the programme has been a full and thriving one; but in many other regions the results have been paltry. The reason, to some extent, has been the delay in the Treasury provision of funds for the work. But a more fundamental reason was that, even in massed formation, the Providing Bodies were not capable of dealing with this immense new potential demand. Adult educational bodies between them have a modest membership which has been reckoned as not more than one in 240 of the adult population; and neither in lecturing staff nor in organizing personnel could they cope with a new constituency of more than a million men. But it was not mere lack of resources which made Adult Education unsuited for this great task. It was also a certain limitation of outlook. Adult education still shows a tendency to think in academic terms, still exaggerates the value of such advanced facilities as the University Tutorial Class or the University Extension Course at the expense of more elementary modes of further education; and such powerful and historic sections of the movement as the W.E.A. are still divided in their estimate of the value of such forms of education as music, play-producing and the practice of the arts. The local education authorities, of course, do not maintain that Sadducean attitude, nor do such young auxiliaries of adult education as the Councils of Social Service and the Women's Institutes. But the Central Council for Adult Education in H.M. Forces is dominated in its outlook and its policy-making by those same narrow but tenacious academic traditions which seem to hold the balance of power on every 'representative' Committee which is ever set up in the adult education movement. That liability will no doubt prevail until the Board of Education sets up, on a truly representative basis, a parliament of adult education, which will not be limited to the Old England of an Upper House, but will give a place and a voice to those numerous unacademic varieties of adult education which have developed in the last decade or two.

For want of such a Parliament adult education has failed to make full use of the opportunity to provide for the army the wide array of facilities, simple as well as advanced, 'practical' as well as literary, which this great cross-section of the community ought to have. One consequence—and

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a very good one, too—is that the Army has now decided to look after its educational needs off its own bat. The Central Council and its regional Committees will continue to function, and the Army will take some of its custom to the Central Council—whenever the Council has the goods which the Army needs. But the bulk of army education will now be provided from its own ranks.

The principles on which this provision is to be based are simple. There are in the fighting forces to-day many thousands of officers and men who, either by training, experience, temperament, or potential capacity, are capable of conducting educational courses in anything from Greek history to model-making. The recruitment of these tutors and instructors is mainly a matter of routine inquiry—and, of course, of subsequent sifting. To whatever duties these men normally have will be added the additional duty—and usually a pleasurable one—of giving a small amount of time to teaching their comrades.

The discovery of the needs of the troops is an equally simple matter, for it is now being conducted not merely by announcements on parade but also by the expert evangelizing work of the 'suitable officer' who, in each battalion is to be charged with looking after the 'educational interests' of the men. It is his job to discover what the men want, to satisfy that want so far as he can from Army resources, and to supplement those resources with such facilities as, within his area, may be made available through the Regional Committee of the Central Council.

That is the procedure embodied in the latest War Office memorandum on the subject, and one which is now beginning to operate. Its common sense and its feasibility are obvious. Army education must be, so to speak, a portable apparatus: the troops must carry their own supply with them rather than depend on the facilities which a university town can supply *only as long as the troops stay put there*. In the second place, the factor of self-sufficiency is a curiously important one from the point of view of morale. The troops are all the better for the knowledge that they can edify or amuse themselves from their own resources and with their own leadership. And in this connexion it deserves to be mentioned that the War Office is now encouraging the troops to provide their own amusements rather than lean entirely on the provision of E.N.S.A.

In the third place, the War Office recognizes that education for non-military ends is an important factor in the making of a keen and contented soldier, and that he must be provided in the army with other facilities than those which make him a good fighting man. The idea behind this scheme is not the negative one of 'keeping boredom at bay'; it is the positive one of maintaining and in many cases creating a wider range of interests than military training tends to promote. It is a matter of exercising facilities which, although not a primary necessity for a soldier, help to give a richer content to his daily life.

One promising feature of this new scheme of Army Education is that it appears to be finding favour with commanding officers. Upon them falls the selection of a part-time education officer for each unit, and the choice they make in these appointments will determine the whole scheme for better or worse. If they pick the right type of man for this evangelizing and organizing service, the rest is comparatively level going. If they pick misfits, the scheme is damned in that unit from the start. There is, happily, abundant evidence that these crucial selections are being wisely and imaginatively made.

The scheme has potentialities for evil as well as good. One evil, for instance, would be to interpret the purpose of Army education as being merely the provision of lectures in any kind of order and without any sense of continuity. Despite the difficulties of army organization, troop movements, &c., a determined effort must be made to provide, as often as possible, discussion groups which meet regularly and have a regular syllabus of study. It is in the emphasis of this value that the Central Council and the Regional Committees can be a particular source of strength to the new scheme. Another potential danger is the risk of bringing any kind of parade-pressure to bear to get the men into classes; but the Army Council has pronounced so resolutely on this point that not even the worst martinet is likely to make education a bore by making it a duty.

Although the scheme is to be devoted mainly to non-vocational training, the Army Council is anxious to do what it can for the thousands of young professional men who have been cut off from opportunities of studying for their diplomas and certificates in such trades as banking, accountancy, and so on. In this field an attempt is to be made to provide correspondence courses at nominal fees; and, although the tuition must inevitably be more sketchy than it would be in civil life, the young soldier-bank-clerk will at least be able to keep his professional studies ticking-over until peace-time comes again.

The army wishes to give full scope in its new scheme to the 'practical' modes of adult education, including music, public speaking, sketching and handicrafts; for, although it is perfectly true to say that the educational standards of this army are far higher than those of a quarter of a century ago, yet it still remains true that large numbers of men will be more readily reached through these practical interests than through the academic approach. In fact the army is willing to realize, as the adult education movement as a whole has begun to realize, that in the world of education there is a wide variety of interest and of aptitudes to be satisfied.

There are certain other factors on which the success or failure of army education will be largely based. One of them is the availability of the right kind of physical setting for educational purposes. Unless the right kind of room, properly equipped, agreeably warmed and properly lighted, can be found for this work, most men in the unit will prefer—and reasonably prefer—to spend their leisure in the canteen or in the nearest cinema. How far the right kind of room will be available no one can yet see; but those in whose hands the organization of this scheme rests are certainly aware of the importance of this primary need. Another decisive factor will be the extent to which the army will supply books for educational purposes. Considerable quantities of books have already found their way into the army, but hitherto there has been no organized supply of books for educational purposes. Here again one of the first obligations upon the Directorate of Army Education will be to see that all reasonable demands for educational books are adequately and rapidly met.

It must be borne in mind that this army education scheme has only just been put on its feet. Even now the process of selecting the officers who will administer the scheme is not yet complete, and hundreds of the part-time Unit Education Officers have still to be selected. A job of such scope and magnitude as this will take time to get going; but what is beyond dispute is the zeal of the Army Council to establish the most liberal and diverse provision for the troops. Their zeal, indeed, for this job is far more striking than that of the Royal Navy or the Royal Air Force, each of which services are perhaps making too much of the alibi that "service conditions leave no time for such extras". The experience of the last war proved over and over again that the fighting-man, however much occupied in his professional duties, still has both the time and the inclination to take his mind off the business of fighting.

One other section of the nation-in-arms whose interests do not appear so far to have been fully considered or provided for is the Auxiliary Territorial Service and the other Women's Auxiliaries. To some extent the women have already shared in the lecture courses arranged by the Central Council, and it may be possible for them to share equally in the new scheme. But some one should keep a watchful eye on their needs so that, if necessary, separate education services could be established for the women in the Forces. On the whole the omens for this vast new project are good; and it may be possible in a later article to report progress and to record other developments.

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THE FUTURE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

I

By C. S. WALTON, Headmaster, University College School, Hampstead

IN putting down some thoughts stirred by the reading of Sir Frank Fletcher's article in the September issue, I write with humility, not so much because at half his age I have had only four years' experience of being a headmaster as against his thirty or more, but because that experience has profoundly changed many of the ideas with which I began. If what follows does not reveal humility, it will be partly due to the great pride that I have come to have during those four years in the school which I have the honour to serve, and where I have watched numbers of boys being formed into reasonable and lively men by what Sir Frank calls the " individuality, almost personality " of the school. His insistence on the importance of this in any definition of the phrase ' public school,' is indeed almost the only point where I agree with him.

His own preference, were he a parent of limited means, (and they all think they are now), would be to put his son as a day-boy to a boarding school which accepted such. As a headmaster of what is entirely a day school, I find the relating one to another of the various essential activities of the school, and in a large sense the discipline of the community, must be based on the unalterable facts that day-boys have but limited time, and a day school (probably for economic reasons) has somewhat limited space; conversely the boarding school has often unlimited space, and the boarder a greater amount of time; therefore the discipline of a boarding school must be different, and may, as I shall suggest later, be inferior; and certainly, in whatever proportion the two are mixed, one section must suffer for the apparently overriding necessities of the other in organization and arrangements. But, anyhow, Sir Frank's choice would be impossible if it were universal, and perhaps he is skating round a difficulty which seems fundamental, but which has never, as far as I know, been stated and answered. However mistaken some of us feel it to be, the recent discussions on the future of public schools seem to confuse the two problems " how can the existing schools be maintained " and " how can boys from a class hitherto not admitted to the public schools be enabled to enjoy the benefits of them ", into one, " how can the admission of such boys be best managed to bolster up schools thought to be in a shaky condition ". The difficulty is, supposing all the problems of selecting the boys and the financial responsibility for them were solved, would their parents consent in sufficient number to send them to the schools, assuming that ' public school ' means in its conventional but incorrect use, ' boarding school '. I have found frequently that parents who are not of the class which takes it for granted that a boy goes away from home to school, will not dream of allowing their boys, even if they could win scholarships, to go to a residential university, and their reluctance is based so deeply on social habit as to be not amenable to reason. And I do not believe that many boys from the elementary schools will be allowed by their parents to go as boarders to public schools. It has to be remembered, too, that a boy's home and home background are an important part of his social life at school. Even at a day school, where the ' clinging ' tendency of the parent of the so-called lower classes is satisfied by the large amount of time which the boy does in fact spend under the family roof every day, boys feel their comparative poverty most by being unable to invite their friends home and entertain them in a style to which they are accustomed, and they will probably refuse invitations which they cannot return. So, despite what it may do by encouraging camping and theatrical societies and other means of social intercourse, even a day school may easily be a place where a poor boy feels acutely ' out of it '. The same is true as much if not more of a boarding school, where conversation often turns on what one does in the holidays, and leads naturally to exchange of visits and meetings for various mutual interests. All these cost money, and parents will all agree that the modern school-child requires a great deal of money to keep him occupied during the holidays. I remember myself feeling slightly embarrassed at times because the habits in the holidays of my friends and acquaintances at school seemed very different from the occupations natural to a boy brought up in the spacious garden and rambling house of a country parsonage, which to me seemed almost the ideal existence, but which they were most unwilling to sample, or, if they did, voted frightfully dull. I can see no way by which a boy of the type suggested could avoid feeling ' out of it '. Such a boy having no ' mansion ' either at school or at home, might easily develop into a soured and unintegrated personality, however distinguished he became at scholarship or athletics.

If this is so, the development of large day-boy sections at all boarding schools is the only possible way of including in these schools boys of this type, and ' large ' they must be, because the danger of the day-boy sections being to a considerable extent or preponderately of this type is too obvious to need pointing out. But as I have already said, I believe that the mixture of day-boys and boarders is inherently unsound, though it is practically convenient for a day school to have a house where boys whose parents have to move from the district can stay without breaking continuity. So the problem for discussion is ultimately, " is the boarding school any longer a necessary part of the social structure, and if not, is it at the least so desirable for its monopoly of virtues that it has a strong claim to survival? " Certainly any one who lives in London in normal times is wasting his money if he does not take advantage of the big day schools of public school status, one or more conveniently accessible from any part of the metropolis and from a large area of the home counties as well. They are all schools of such antiquity as to have, in however modern buildings they may be housed, the continuity of personality of which Sir Frank Fletcher speaks. The close touch which parents can have with the school is in my experience most salutary as a guarantee against complacency, and a stimulus to efficiency, and the daily contact with the busy life of the city helps to give both masters and boys a proper sense of values and a wide outlook. But the impressive size and importance of these schools are but recently attained, and have depended on the extension of suburban transport, by train and omnibus and private car. The same increase in size has resulted from the same cause in the schools of many big provincial towns, and we may ask later why they have not all increased as well in importance. As the day schools seem now to have increased in response to changed habits of the population, so the era of boarding schools may well have corresponded to a set of habits and circumstances which have already changed sufficiently to threaten their existence. It is not often remembered that very few boarding schools are a century old, and most of them came into being at a stage of the Victorian age marked by certain obvious features. No doubt it was always the custom for the masters of endowed foundations to make a little extra by taking into their own houses for education the sons of small country gentlemen who could not afford private tutors for their sons, and were out of reach of respectable day schools, and this tendency must have appeared more profitable as the cost of living rose through the Napoleonic Wars. Eton took the place of Westminster in educating the nobility for reasons which are well understood but do not generally apply. The new

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or enlarged boarding schools which filled up in the next few decades drew their boys mainly from the new class created by the industrial revolution, who copied the example of the country gentlemen in sending their sons away to school, and indeed had such large families as to make such a course desirable. The development of railways made the sending of them possible and convenient even to schools long distant, while attendance at a local or near-by day school was not yet practicable. The success of the system was perhaps due to Arnold's influence in a different way from what is popularly supposed, for I find it difficult to believe that boys were in his day much more responsive to moralising than they are now. They instinctively follow character, whether good or bad, and unerringly discern and ignore lack of character. The boys who came to the boarding schools were mostly from homes where a very solid practical piety held sway, and the tone of Arnold's school merely reflected the tone of the class which was attracted by what it knew of Arnold's ideas. His own insistence on getting rid of undesirable boys—he called it a headmaster's first, second and third duty—did the rest, by ensuring as far as possible that the influences at work in a community of boys living together without much direction by masters should be sound. In later times the standard was kept up by the leaven of sons of professional men, clergymen, doctors, and civil servants, and the like, who were brought up at home to take the duty of service for granted, and they unconsciously set the tone of the schools by their attitude there.

The weaknesses of the present boarding schools come from a change in many of these things which originally conditioned their success. Above all, the middle-class parent has almost abandoned the moral training of his children, and the schools can no longer count on receiving the necessary leaven of boys with a firm sense of values derived from early parental and family training. The result is that, as boys still influence each other in a boarding school far more than they are influenced by grown-ups, despite the freer association of master and boy, it is a matter of chance, not to be discovered in advance but only too late, whether the tone of a house is good or bad, and it may change from one to the other with surprising rapidity. The professional man finds it harder and harder to afford the fees of a boarding school, and the men who made their money out of the last war did not always do it so scrupulously that their sons had much to contribute in standards of value. The smaller family of modern times affects the boarding school unfavourably in two ways: the boy is used to a higher standard of comfort at home, so the schools have felt obliged to spend their money on improving their schools as hotels to meet parental criticism, and having far more interests and being more used to the society of grown-ups, he is apt to be critical and resentful of the restrictions and the perpetual herding together. Dozens of small boys suffer mentally at boarding schools because there is no place available for them to be alone in, for they are just reaching the age when it is natural and healthy for a boy to feel that he has a ' private life ' and affairs of his own, which should be free from intrusion by even his best friend at school as well as, more obviously, by his parents at home. Enlightened headmasters have done much to improve matters, even in the time since I was at school, but it remains true that the feeling of perpetual responsibility they and their housemasters have leads to restrictions on freedom which the intelligent boy feels to be arbitrary. The less intelligent majority accept them without trouble, but it cannot be a sound moral training where severe penalties are attached to artificially created offences, and breaking the rules does not mean perceived loss or damage to the community. The discipline cannot be based, as at a day school, on the appeal to reason. There a boy can see that the activities of the community are bounded by limits of space and time, and his failure to fall in with rules and conventions interferes unjustifiably with the interests of others, who want to get on with the job. The surplus energy of the day-boy is conveniently dissipated in the process of travel to and from school—I am now convinced that strap-hanging and fighting to get out of crowded tube trains do boys good in this way, and they certainly enjoy it—whereas a boarding house often becomes like a crew under hatches with housemaster or house-captain seeking to relax the tension in the emotions of inter-house rivalry. The critics of the boarding school who say that the system produces class exclusiveness and a distorted code of values have a case which they could go far to justify by an accurate analysis of boarding-school discipline. Usually they prefer to be abusive, and reveal their motive to be jealousy. And this should always encourage us in the belief that the public schools have at least up to the present given their boys something worth having.

My own conclusion is that, as the boarding schools owed their extension to the social and economic trends of the Victorian age, they are bound to decline as these change. They do not have a monopoly of educational virtues, and are liable to vary much in quality. If politics do not interfere, on economic grounds it seems likely that there will always be enough boys of the middle classes who live too far from day schools to fill a number of boarding schools, but not the present number, with material suitable for the system. How little suitable some of it is now may be inferred from the fact that some schools are prepared to take any boy whose parents can pay, with little inquiry as to his character, and less as to his intelligence. The decline of the boarding school would have been more speedy if the day schools in large towns, aided or maintained by local authorities, had a better standing, and if it were felt that the training they give the ordinary boy is as good as their scholarship records often are. I know of no explanation but that local government, especially in towns, does not often attract men of very high ideals or even standards of personal morality, and as governors of schools they interfere but do not inspire. Headmasters who get little encouragement from this source are further limited by the type of master who is prepared to work in these schools.

Finally I suggest a few points where boarding schools might help themselves instead of calling in effect for state subsidies.

1. The headmaster should have less sense of his importance in the outside world as *e.g.* itinerant preacher or casual journalist. He will then be constantly on the spot and keep the school at a high level of activity because he will have time for everything and everybody.

2. Governing bodies should attend to their business better than some of them must have done in the past, and not leave it all to the bursar. Their function is to keep bursars always, and headmasters sometimes, up to the mark by asking " why ? " It is understood that they know little about the work, but may be assumed to be intelligent men, and if they ask " why ? " and no one can explain to their satisfaction, they have probably discovered an abuse or slackness beginning.

3. Assistant masters have acquired a conventional security much like the ' parson's freehold ', and the effect of the Burnham scales has been, like the rise in salaries of curates, to draw into the profession men who think of it as a career and not a vocation. Much higher professional standards and less ' solidarity ' are needed. The training departments of the universities might well be more critical in selecting candidates for the training courses. Salaries are either too little or too big, and I fancy that better schoolmasters were often produced by the old system of underpayment which gave the schools passionate lovers of scholarship for its own sake, and men with private means who had a liking and a natural ability for teaching boys.

4. Something should be done to prevent legitimate pride in one's own school involving a contempt for almost any other. A boy is by nature no respecter of persons, and has a fine instinctive judgment of real worth in those he meets. Cannot the schools make this power the key to sidetracking inevitable class distinctions and removing social abuses ?

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II

By R. KENNARD DAVIS, M.A., Master of Magdalen College School, Oxford

IN his article on "The Future of the Public Schools" Sir Frank Fletcher has, as might be expected, cleared away a great deal of irrelevant nonsense and revealed both a just appreciation of the valuable elements in public school education and an enlightened recognition of the necessity to break down the barrier of wealth which keeps from the public schools so large a proportion of those best qualified intellectually to profit from them.

At the same time, there are points in the article which are open to dispute, and there are some who feel that, if the public schools are to make their full contribution to national life, reform must go a good deal further than Sir Frank suggests.

"Between an educated and an uneducated man" writes Sir Frank "there is a real barrier." "There is a freemasonry between those who have learnt the same subjects, before which minor differences of birth or wealth disappear." Do not these statements suggest precisely that exaggerated distinction between the public-school boy and the rest of the world which arouses so many protests to-day? Is it not a truer line of approach to regard all life as in some sense a process of education, and the differences in formal education between individuals as a matter of degree? Those who have spent the greater part of their lives in receiving or giving instruction in certain subjects and under similar conditions undoubtedly share a kind of freemasonry —and a very delightful kind—with one another, but the very defect of this life is that it interposes a real barrier between them and those whose education has largely been gained in farm or factory and club; and the chief defect of our boarding school system springs from the idea that to train boys to play their part in the world you must remove them out of the world and isolate them from its living interests.

For this reason I, as headmaster of a school where boarders and day boys meet, welcome very heartily Sir Frank Fletcher's proposal that the day-boy element in our public schools should be increased and encouraged. Modern transport facilities have made this far easier than it would have been a few years ago. I welcome also his suggestion that the doors of the public schools should be thrown open to boys from elementary schools; but I should prefer that such boys should be selected from those who have gone with scholarships to secondary schools, rather than from those who remain at elementary schools to the age of thirteen. These latter will be handicapped by the delay in starting those subjects (such as Latin, French, Algebra, and Geometry) which are not taught in elementary schools; already under the scholarship system some boys are sent to secondary schools who are not suited for the more academic type of education, and I doubt whether among those who fail to win scholarships enough boys of real academic ability could be found to make the experiment a success.

Sir Frank Fletcher values the non-local character of the great public schools. Here again I am disposed (with some diffidence) to disagree with him. The nation has lost a great potential source of local patriotism by turning citizens of Wigan and Pudsey (any other names would do as well) into Rugbeians or Carthusians. To develop this theme would take up too much of your valuable space; but my conclusion is that for many (perhaps not all) of our public schools the most hopeful and the most useful course is to become centres of higher secondary education for their own districts; to cooperate in some new form of grouping with existing secondary schools; to receive from them, either as boarders (financed by the local authorities), or as day-boys, those pupils who are most likely to benefit by the peculiar advantages which they offer; to afford opportunities of varied experience to members of the staffs of such schools; to join with them in games, concerts, debates, and other out-of-school activities; and, without relinquishing their independence or their traditions, to make the fullest possible contribution towards meeting local educational needs.

The working out of the details of such co-operation is a task requiring great tact and wisdom. The public schools must not be placed directly under any existing local education authority; the local secondary schools must not be drained of all their most able pupils nor made to feel that they are treated as inferior. A new form of partnership must be evolved, and here our national genius for producing workable arrangements in defiance of abstract logic should find ample scope.

I have in preceding paragraphs suggested some of the defects of a boarding-school education. I believe them to be real, but I am no less conscious of the advantages which many, perhaps most, boys gain from the experience of communal life. At some time in the course of his education I believe that nearly every boy ought to leave his home and learn, first to hold his own among strangers, and then to live and work for common ends among his companions. A system by which secondary-school boys were drafted at special times and varying ages into the public schools would give scope for most interesting experiments and would impart new life and variety of experience to all the schools concerned.

We have thought too much in the past of imparting learning and training character without relation to the world in which learning is to be a lamp and character a staff. Our public schools have much to give and much to gain through closer contact with the life of the nation as a whole.

III

By D. G. E. HALL, M.A., D.Litt., Headmaster of Caterham School

SIR FRANK FLETCHER'S timely and sane discussion of "The Future of the Public Schools" is most welcome after the blasts of artificially heated air from a section of the press. His caveat regarding the vague and misleading generalizations commonly applied to the term 'public schools' is of particular importance in view of the dangerously loose thinking exhibited by many who have contributed to the discussions of the past few months. Certainly the schools represented on the Headmasters' Conference neither form a definable class of educational establishment nor do they as a whole cater for a limited class of the population. Some are wholly boarding schools, some wholly day schools. Some are financially independent, some aided by 'direct grant', while some are dependent upon local education authorities. Many of them admit boys from the elementary schools to special places. It would indeed be interesting to know what proportion of boys in Headmasters' Conference schools at present obtained admission through the common-entrance examination or its equivalent.

Sir Frank hits the nail on the head when he says that the primary difficulty is financial, not social. The problem has arisen not because of an outcry against the social exclusiveness of the public schools, but because certain important developments in our social life have brought serious financial embarrassment to many of them, and it has been suggested that they can be saved only by help from the public purse. The war has gravely accentuated the problem. It is no exaggeration to say that the outlook for quite a number of these schools is desperate. The real question therefore is whether they are to be left to sink or swim, or whether it is in the public interest to save them.

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Education is a very sacred thing, and notwithstanding all their defects, real or fancied, urged by critics, there can be no doubt to any one who really knows them that the public schools offer something of imperishable value to the community. But, quite apart from this point—and Sir Frank has stated it with admirable cogency—there is a more materialistic side of the question which claims consideration. Most of these schools possess buildings, equipment, and grounds, often provided at fabulous cost by the generosity of patrons and the deep affection of old boys. They are undoubtedly a great national asset, and, should it become impossible for them to be properly maintained, or, worse still, should they be lost to the purpose for which they were designed, the nation would be the loser.

Obviously there is only one valid reason for the expenditure of public money—the good of the community as a whole. That is to say, schools aided from the public purse must be brought into the State system of education. This would inevitably increase the efficiency and security of many of them, and without such things you cannot talk about liberty. I do not however believe that their liberty need be endangered by closer association with the State system. In my opinion it could be best safeguarded by the development and maintenance of direct relations between the schools and the Board of Education. In any case the practical difficulties of relating the public schools to the State system are so complex that they could be carried out only by some central body. I should like to see the creation of a special branch of the Board of Education to work in co-operation with the Headmasters' Conference both for the inception of such a scheme and for its permanent administration. In the critical stages of a great war it seems too much to hope that this can be done. But if the present *laissez faire* attitude continues it may bring about a situation we shall all bitterly regret.

One of Sir Frank Fletcher's practical suggestions appeals strongly to me. He says there is room for considerable increase in the day-boy element. Under the conditions he lays down there is much scope for profitable development in this direction. In the first place a boarding school certainly offers a far better community life and a more liberal education to a day-boy than does a day school. But there is a further possibility. While many parents cannot afford to pay boarding fees for a boy's whole school career, they can often make it possible for him to become a boarder for part of his career. Even if we descend from the purely cultural plane and consider the question from the point of view of mere examination efficiency, it is a great help to a day-boy to become a boarder during his last year of preparation for the School Certificate, and even more so during his sixth form course.

The average modern home is too small for a boy at this stage. Hardly ever has he a separate room in which to study, and, with the wireless blaring away and the many distractions of modern suburban life, there is everything to discourage him from serious intellectual effort. Compare with this the ordered life and the facilities for study provided by the boarding school. If the question is viewed in its wider cultural aspect, the advantages of the residential system over the non-residential become even more obvious. They are in all essentials those of the residential over the non-residential university. And in an age when so many boys are only-sons or only-children, the importance of boarding schools would seem to be greater than ever before, since to such boys they offer an infinitely better start in life than day schools. I should like to see the number of public schools offering special places as day-boys to elementary school boys considerably increased. But still more essential in my opinion is the provision of opportunities for them to become boarders during some part of their school career. I do not for one moment underestimate the difficulties both financial and social in the practical application of such a project, but I am convinced that they can and ought to be overcome.

IV. NEED FOR DEFINITIONS

By E. P. OAKES, M.A., Headmaster of Sir Roger Manwood's School, Sandwich

IN writings and discussions on the public schools, on their present position in the life of the nation and their future existence, there seems to be a great need for definition, not merely of terms but also of aim and object. The need for a definition of terms is obviously felt by the writers of the three articles on the above topic in the November number of the *Journal*. Mr. Hugh Elder is clearly concerned with "Public *Boarding* Schools and the Nation"; indeed, towards the end of his article he says, "That is the main problem. We want these boys as boarders, not as day-boys." Again, in the third paragraph of his article Dr. Skinner is careful to make his own definition of the type of public school whose survival he is discussing: he writes, "The term 'public school' is a nuisance. The point is always: What *kind* of a public school? It had better be stated at the outset that the *kind* of public school in question is the public boarding school: the school with a reasonable number of boarders (150–200 as a minimum)—and possibly some day-boys." Again, Mr. Bushell, when he writes "the future of the boarding schools, because this is what most people mean when they speak of the future of the public schools" shows the same desire for precision.

These definitions are clearly necessary since the public school list contains a wide range of schools, from 100 per cent boarding to 100 per cent day-boy, and from rolls of several hundred boys down to a hundred. Do all these schools, or even the large majority, contain some properties or values peculiar to them, without which the nation would be the loser? What are these virtues common to them all, which give them their value? It is recognized that many of the public schools are facing great financial difficulties and that even if they effect extensive economies in their internal systems of organization it will cost the nation a good deal of money to incorporate them into the national scheme of education. The following question must, therefore, be faced—and it is not being asked in order to give the impetuous critics of the public schools a chance to yell a derisive 'No', but because it leads to the asking of a much more important question. The immediate question can be stated thus: If the incorporation of the public schools into the national scheme of education is going to be an expensive business for the taxpayer, is it worth the expenditure of the money? To answer this question fully other questions must first be considered: Will the process of bringing these public schools into the national system take away from them their present worth; can this danger be averted, and if so, what safeguards must be introduced? It will generally be agreed that a racehorse is a beautiful animal and that it would be an expensive process for a milk-roundsman to purchase the animal for use in drawing his milk-van: a much more important point is that the virtues which gave the racehorse its value as a racehorse could not be transferred entirely into the service of the milkman, he would be better advised to buy a modest 'hack' and save the rest of his money.

In searching for answers to these questions one will sooner or later—and sooner, rather than later, come across the word 'independence'. It is regarded almost as axiomatic, as recent articles and correspondence in *The Journal* show, to assert that the present strength, and any possible future strength of the public schools depends largely on their independence. There is here an unmistakable call for definition and clarification, not merely to satisfy an academic desire to use words with care and precision, but

(*Continued on page* 16)

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also because in the search for this definition some practical policy may emerge which will enable the public schools to keep that 'something' which, it is asserted, their independence gives them and which will perhaps act as a searchlight on a problem which concerns the educational system as a whole.

What is this independence "to which so much of the success of the public schools has been due"? It would appear to be implied that the aided (in whose number are included some public schools) and maintained secondary schools are stunted in their development because they are dependent in certain ways in which the public schools enjoy independence or freedom. If this is true, a sincere and honest analysis of the respective systems of control of the public and non-public schools might yield some results on which a practical policy could be based. Perhaps a list could be drawn up contrasting the dependence of the aided or maintained schools with the independence of the public schools: if it can be proved (not merely asserted) that the independence of the latter gives strength it might be a practical step (it would certainly be logical) to remove some of the dependence of the former so that strength could flow to them.

The English system of education, like so many other English institutions, is largely a growth by trial and error. If the public schools gain strength from the absence of central or local administrative control, both of which are present in varying degrees in the case of aided and maintained schools, the method of trial and error would demand the removal of some of those controls. This might mean a conflict, but the value of education to the nation and the world is too big for that consideration to act as a deterrent.

It is stated in some quarters that the 'Direct Grant' Schools, by receiving financial assistance from the Board of Education direct and not through any local administrative body, enjoy far more of this strength-yielding freedom than do the locally controlled schools, and this system of financial aid is suggested for those independent schools which now require it. It is implied that local administration is the villain of the piece, but this is again mainly assertion unsupported by reasoned argument.

The late Mr. Ronald Gurner, in his book *I Chose Teaching*, dealt with some of the differences between the types of control: perhaps some other headmaster who has been in charge of an aided or maintained school and also of an 'independent' public school, and possesses the gift of compression, could draw up the list I have suggested contrasting the ways in which the 'dependence' and the 'independence' of the two types of schools affect their day-by-day working life, their outlook and their development. Probably a headmaster can be found whose experience includes in addition the Direct Grant type of school; the list of comparisons and contrasts could then be extended to cover the three systems. If it can be *proved*, and not merely be demanded as an act of faith, that independence has given, and does give strength, these corollaries would appear to follow: (*a*) a larger measure of independence should be restored, or granted for the first time, to other types of schools, (*b*) safeguards must be devised to ensure that in granting financial aid to schools which are now independent, the nation does not destroy their virtues by destroying their independence, (*c*) a committee, possibly composed of members of the H.M.C. and I.A.H.M., together with representatives of the Board of Education, should be formed to draw up schemes for achieving these ends.

If the case cannot be proved the reasons for the strength of the public schools must be sought for elsewhere and we must cease asserting as a truism that the state of independence is one of blessedness.

CORRESPONDENCE

A PUBLIC SCHOOLBOY'S COMMENTS ON RECENT ARTICLES

SIR,—Coming from the public schoolboy himself, perhaps the following thoughts on recent articles in your paper may be of a certain value.

1. The reception of ex-elementary schoolboys, day or boarder, would depend almost entirely on themselves individually. Inevitably, they would to some extent be square pegs—but the toughness of the wood would vary. If, as Mr. Renwick suggests, the difference of their previous circumstances had rendered them 'knotty', judged by accepted standards, the majority would naturally, even if not excusably, make them feel it; and, in the case of the self-conscious *novus homo*, there is the psychological danger, not only of Sir F. Fletcher's "ascribed aloofness", but also of a very real subjective semi-defiance and defensive self-isolation. But the boy of open, imitative, and malleable disposition would soon find the 'hole' quite prepared to be elastic enough to fit him like a glove. It would be a case, not of snobbish objection to the ex-elementary schoolboy, but of self-preservative fear of the possible implications of receiving a misfit—a traitor within the gate.

2. The remarks of Mr. Elder and Mr. Skinner on Religion, as usual in similar contexts, just fail to possess the ring of reality and significance; due probably to the fact that in religion, more than any other sphere of school life, the boy is least likely or able to communicate his inmost feelings to his masters. But in the face of common complaints of 'atheism', 'inexperienced materialism', 'youthful rebelliousness', and similar half-tolerant, half-contemptuous verdicts from housemasters, preachers, and others, I believe that there is in seed among our youth a revival of religion, in its purest sense, of the deepest significance and highest promise. Not orthodox, non-ecclesiastical, perhaps not strictly Christian, nor even deist, it is nevertheless of great strength and faith; a newly-moving consciousness of the spiritual value in all things, of the common ground of all revealed religions and all philosophies, a conception of the spirituality of the universe. It is a movement away from materialism and purely intellectual metaphysicality (for both of which it has been mistaken); and towards a somewhat Nietschean conception of the necessity of containing ourselves, our work, and our hopes in this world, neither despising the body nor resting content; but working, body and mind, for something Beyond but here, and finding fulfilment of life in service. Public school chaplains would do well in recognizing this fact and adapting the spirit of their services to meet its demands; perhaps by alternating the regular lessons, which through repetition become ineffective, with selections from other works of spiritual value, significance and stimulus; and by sermons less rigidly doctrinal in source and sentiment.

3. I hope Prof. Clarke does not mean to suggest that his idea of teaching less European history applies only to contemporary conditions. There is no value in a great amount of knowledge except as a means to understanding, which comes best through greatest comprehension. But the usual disjointed treatment of European history, like a badly-put-together film-sequence, lacks all sense of unity, consistency, completeness, and proportion, and seems to demand the tactics of 'swotting'; whereas true understanding comes not by prayer and fasting but by more or less sudden revelation, showing history as one whole process in which the student sees himself, as Clarke points out, as a part. Not that Europe should be entirely neglected (the idea is *not* 'to know nothing about France and Germany because they're difficult'); rather it should be treated from the God's-eye view, which permits of a sense of

(*Continued on page* 18)

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proportion, and inasmuch as comprehension of British history demands it. For, after all, it is only introduction; practically speaking, to the first days of the genuine historian (not merely working for School Certificate), the vast areas of European history demanded by present Higher Certificate and Scholarship standards are all new ground. Only the first-rank intellect can cope with this mass of material and still preserve a sense of proportion, continuity, and 'significance'—*i.e.* universal implication—under the present treatment of European history.

J. A. FLEMING (History Sixth).

3 The College,
Great Malvern, Worcs.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AND THE TEACHING OF ART

SIR,—I imagine that there is a general agreement among educationists and particularly among thinkers on education, that the teaching of Art in both secondary and elementary schools is a matter of vital importance to the social well-being of the nation. Up to quite recent years the neglect of the subject was something of a scandal; it shared with music (in secondary schools at any rate) the rôle of the Cinderella, if not the Aunt Sally, of the time-table. But, like Cinderella, once the glass slipper has been found or whatever magical formula it may be has been invented, it should and will—one hopes—emerge as one of the chief beauties of the educational court. A great opportunity is being given us to build our queen-city in a nobler and statelier style than before. But the opportunity will be lost unless the taste of the general public is gradually itself ennobled. And where can that ennoblement be started save in our schools? And in our schools, let it never be forgotten, Art can be taught, or, rather, *inspired*, only by teachers who are themselves artists—by which I mean those who have in them the creative power, as well as the ability to instruct.

Therefore it is time, high time, that so far as is possible the coming art teachers should be prepared now. One would imagine indeed that every facility that is feasible would be given, every let and hindrance removed from the teacher-artist's path.

One would think so, but, if one did, I am afraid one would be greatly mistaken. Let the following facts be read and digested:

There are very few courses provided for training the artist to teach. Whether it is supposed that the artist requires no training in pedagogy or psychology I don't know. Rather, I am afraid, the reason is that most of the education authorities are still blind to the great value of Art teaching in the schools. At any rate, I am only acquainted with two courses in England—one held at the University of Reading, the other in London. Oxford and Cambridge to their shame provide no such facilities. But then Oxford has no Professor of Education, and looks with a flinty and disapproving glare on the whole subject of education in the schools. I do not know how it is with my own university, though I fancy Cambridge is a little more benevolent.

But be that as it may, a certain number of artists-in-being who have already studied their own subject in certain Art schools are graciously permitted to attend the one year training courses at London and Reading. But their previous Art education is sternly scrutinized before the portals are thrown open. And the diplomae'd students of one school of Art are jealously excluded from the privilege of attending the training course. Students of the Royal College of Art, those from the Slade School and all who, wherever their art-instruction has been obtained, have passed the Board of Education's art examinations are eligible. But—one does not know whether to laugh or weep at the forbidding ordinance—no student from the Royal Academy, be he or she ever so talented, is recognized even as *eligible* for the training course for Art teachers. Such are deliberately shut out from this Eden. Why? Believe it if you can! Because the Board of Education has no knowledge of the Royal Academy Schools! Its officials, I am told, have no right of entry into Burlington House. Therefore it is obvious that the students may do anything there but study Art, engage in games of high-jinks, waste their time and their money, be completely unsuitable to be taught how to teach Art—in the opinion of the omnipotent Board of Education. Let a student have gained a diploma after five years of concentrated study, let him have won gold or silver or bronze medals, let him have gained the *Prix de Rome*, let him be warranted by the very President of the Royal Academy himself as an earnest and highly-talented student . . . even so, with all his honours on his Praxitelean head, he is not fit to take advantage of the training course for teachers of Art, though he is ready to pay all the expenses. The Board knows nothing of the Royal Academy!

There is a stable, almost Augean, to be cleansed after the war in many of our government offices. A breath of fresh air sweeping through the stale and jaded purlieus of the Board of Education might sweeten and enliven the whole of our educational system.

E. SHARWOOD SMITH.

Woodside,
Hermitage, Berks.

WANTED—A NEW MATHEMATICAL SYLLABUS

SIR,—I have read Mr. Bushell's comments on my article urging that *a new mathematical syllabus* is needed for secondary schools, and indicating the kind of syllabus which I thought was required. In Mr. Bushell's criticisms I cannot find a single sentence relevant to the matter in hand. Does Mr. Bushell think the present mathematical syllabus satisfactory? Does he think that the kind of syllabus I have suggested is what is wanted? If so, should the new syllabus be formulated by a committee consisting mainly of mathematical teachers, or should it be imposed from outside? On none of these points does Mr. Bushell enlighten us.

Mr. Bushell's defence of the teaching methods of mathematical teachers is superfluous. I have not attacked them. If, as I suggest, much algebraic manipulation and a number of geometrical propositions are artificial or superfluous, the teachers must teach them, whether they do it well or badly, so long as the syllabus contains them. They also cannot teach what I think ought to be taught, because they have not the time. When it is suggested that a fundamental change is needed in a syllabus, it is no answer to say that methods of teaching have been improved, or that minor modifications have been made in the syllabus itself.

What is the view of mathematical teachers on the present syllabus? If they are not satisfied, what sort of syllabus do they think desirable? My article was intended to provoke discussion. It is therefore very regrettable that the discussion it has evoked should be so irrelevant.

H. S. SHELTON.

5 Ferry Road,
Teddington, Middlesex.

A LATE AUTUMN

SIR,—During my reading of Cobbett's *Rural Rides*, I came across the following statements.

The entry dated November 2 stated: "The oaks are still covered, the beeches in their best dress, the elms yet pretty green, and the beautiful ashes only beginning to turn off."

Again, in the entry dated November 5, I read: "The wheat . . . is four inches high and is green and gay."

Can this be seen in the countryside during November, or is it a mis-statement?

B. W. HODDER.

12 Central Park Avenue,
Wallasey, Cheshire.

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EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

CENTRAL AFRICA

WE have received the annual educational reports for 1938 of the Tanganyika Territory, and for 1939 of the Nyasaland Protectorate. The Tanganyika report admits that no great educational progress was made during the first years after its acquisition from Germany, but in 1925–31 there was rapid development, the European staff rising from 14 to 62, and expenditure increasing from £18,551 to £122,666. This advance was arrested by the financial depression. In 1933 an inspectorate was introduced. Educationists are faced with the familiar problem of teaching English as a passport to advancement, in the same way as " the medieval English villager struggled to obtain for his sons a knowledge of Latin ", in contrast with general literacy and the uplift of rural communities. But the problem of over-production of scholars has not yet arisen in Tanganyika. There are as many as 24 missions operating in the Territory, the largest being the R. C. White Fathers, followed by the Universities' Mission of Central Africa. These missions play " a large and valuable part " in the educational scheme. The report is signed by the Director of Education, Mr. A. A. M. Isherwood.

Nyasaland has 1,800 European residents and four European schools, one private and the others conducted by missions; an Asiatic population of 1,748; and an African population of 1,673,000. The history of Native education is the history of the missions. A start is being made in African secondary education by the establishment of a junior secondary school at Blantyre.

CEYLON

MR. L. McD. ROBISON'S report for 1939 as Director of Education for Ceylon describes the reforms following the Education Ordinance of September 1st, 1939, whereby control of education is vested in the Executive Committee of Education with 25 Local Advisory Committees. Under the new conscience clause, parents have to give their written consent to the religious teaching of the children. Expenditure on education has been restricted since the outbreak of war. In 1939–40, the Ceylon University College had 629 students, including 66 women; Ceylon Medical College had 181 students; the Law College in 1939 admitted 20 students to the advocates' course and 38 to the proctors' course. The Ceylon Technical College has 1,233 students. Full statistics are published, including statistics for London University examinations, the results of which appear to be creditable. In 1939, 60 students graduated B.A. and 40 B.Sc. There were also large entries for City and Guilds, London Chamber of Commerce, and Cambridge Senior Examinations.

DUBLIN INSTITUTE FOR ADVANCED STUDIES

LESS than eighteen months ago Mr. de Valera (Prime Minister) moved the first reading of a Bill in Dail Eireann, which, if and when it became law, would form a very important contribution to the development of higher education and culture. Seven months ago the text of the Bill was made available, and in June last the Bill (Institute for Advanced Studies Act, 1940) was passed.

The functions of the Institute are: to provide facilities for the promotion of research in specialized branches of knowledge; for the furtherance of advanced study; and for the publication of the results of such study and research. Provision is made for the establishment of two constituent schools of the Institute. These are: A School of Celtic Studies and A School of Theoretical Physics.

The Constitution of the Institute provides for the establishment of a Council, which is the body corporate of the Institute, and to which are entrusted the general government and administration of the Institute. It provides also for the appointment of a Governing Board in each constituent school.

The Act provides that the first Council shall consist of a Chairman and four other members, all of whom shall be appointed by the President (Eire) on the advice of the Government, together with the following three ex-officio members:

The President of University College, Dublin; the Provost of Trinity College, Dublin; the President of The Royal Irish Academy.

The first Council will hold office until June, 1941, or until the second Council is appointed if that occurs later. The second and subsequent Councils will consist of a Chairman (appointed by the President), the ex-officio members and two members appointed by the Governing Board of each school, and will hold office for a period of five years.

The President, acting upon the advice of the Government, early in October last made the following appointments to the first Council of the Institute: The Rev. Patrick Browne, M.A., D.Sc. (Chairman); Richard Irvine Best, M.A., D.Litt.; Daniel Anthony Binchy, M.A., Ph.D., B.L.; Felix E. W. Hackett, M.A., M.Sc., Ph.D.; Edwin Schrodinger, M.A., D.Sc.; and the following are the ex-officio members: Dr. A. W. Conway, President, University College, Dublin; Professor W. E. Thrift, Provost, Trinity College, Dublin; Professor Eoin MacNeill, President, Royal Irish Academy.

Towards the end of October establishment orders setting up the constituent schools were made by the Government and the first four professors appointed. Three of these, Dr. Osborn Bergin, Dr. Richard I. Best, and Dr. T. F. O'Rahilly are to the School of Celtic Studies and the fourth, Dr. Erwin Schrodinger, to the School of Theoretical Physics.

A sum of £6,300, estimated to cover administration and other expenses to be incurred by the Institute within the present financial year, has been voted by the Government. This sum is intended to provide for the adaptation to suit requirements of two adjacent houses on Merrion Square, Dublin; salaries of the Academic staff, assistants, and general expenses of the Institute and its constituent schools.

It is heartening in these dark days that the torch of learning should be borne aloft, and under the direction of so many brilliant men—each an expert in his own particular sphere—the purposes of the Institute are assured of fulfilment.

C. KEOGH.

U.S.S.R.

TEN years have elapsed since the introduction of compulsory elementary education in the Soviet Union. During the period a veritable cultural revolution has taken place in the country. The number of schools in the U.S.S.R. now reaches 170,000.

Whereas in pre-revolutionary Russia in 1914, the number of children attending schools was 8,137,000, in the U.S.S.R., according to the figures of the last all-Union census of the population, taken in January 1939, the number of children attending schools was 37,900,000. In 1913 Russia spent 80 kopeks (less than one rouble) per head of population on public education. The U.S.S.R. in 1939 spent 124 roubles per head of population on education purposes.

The growth of public education in the different Soviet Republics may be seen from the following figures: On January 1, 1939, there were 109,000 schools in the R.S.F.S.R. (Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic); on January 1, 1940, their number had increased by 2,000. On January 1, 1939, the number of pupils attending the schools of this federated republic was 19,400,000; the number of

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pupils attending in the present educational year is 21,400,000.

Education has grown also in the Soviet Republics of Central Asia. During the last ten years the number of elementary schools in Tajikistan has increased from 375 to 3,838; the partial secondary schools from 4 to 314; and the secondary schools from 2 to 48. In 1939 the number of pupils attending the schools of Tajikistan was 26,730; in the educational year 1939–40 the number was 265,000.

The study of foreign languages has been made compulsory in all high schools and colleges of the Soviet Union. The Council of People's Commissars has ruled that by 1943 German, English, or French—in that order—should be introduced into the school curriculum.

NEW MEDIA

SCHOOL BROADCASTING

By R. C. STEELE

"IT is of great and growing importance that schools should be equipped with or have the use of wireless receiving sets."

This sentence speaks for itself. It is the first sentence of the Board of Education's *The Schools in Wartime*, Memorandum No. 22, in which School Broadcasting is recognized as a National Service. After four terms of war it may be interesting to make a brief review of this service.

The first thing which must strike any one who knew anything about school broadcasting before the war is its remarkable stability in a year of much educational change. The time-table is similar; there is still about an hour's broadcasting each morning and each afternoon. Most of the subjects which had established themselves before the war remain. The essential character of the broadcasts is unaltered; they still "provide something which the teacher himself cannot give" and "supplement the work of the school on the imaginative side"; they are still supplementary to the teacher's ordinary work. Most important of all their aim remains purely educational, and the policy is still determined by the Central Council for School Broadcasting.

The house thus remains built on the same rock, but there has never been a year more full of interesting experiments either at the 'studio' or the 'listening' end. The war not only disorganized many schools; it made it harder for the Central Council to keep in touch with schools; and one very important link between the broadcaster and his audience, the children's pamphlets, was broken straightway. After the first term, leaflets were issued to teachers as a partial substitute for the pamphlets, but now the paper shortage has put an end to these, too. Thus the teachers can receive less detailed information in advance of the broadcasts.

This must have two important results. First, the teacher cannot prepare his class for the broadcast in the same way. All he has to help him in the issued schedules are the titles, amplified by a line or so of explanation, and half a dozen lines which set out the general purpose of the series. This by no means makes preparation impossible, but it forces it to be different in so far as the children cannot be given in the same detail that background for the understanding of the broadcast which the broadcaster used to be able to assume. This in its turn must affect the presentation at the 'studio' end. The broadcaster of history, for instance, can say to himself, "My listeners know that to-day they are going to hear about Coke of Norfolk and some of his experiments in farming; but they do not know *which* experiments, and so, for instance, if I talk about the rotation of crops I cannot assume, as in the old pamphlet days, that all the children will have had its meaning explained to them." Every broadcast this year even more than before will have to be simple and clear, to state one important thing plainly, and to illustrate it vividly.

As presentation has to be carefully adapted to circumstances, so has content. Teachers think differently about the proper place of the war in education. Some hold that mention of it should be banished from school hours which should be preserved as a period in which children may forget about it. Others, who perhaps think this view of school rather monastic, prefer to use the interest in the war, which in fact exists, as an aid to their normal teaching. Possibly the majority fall somewhere between the two, neither obtruding nor avoiding the subject. The school broadcasting programme is varied enough to provide for all tastes, for while its general normality will reassure every one, it is as distinctively fresh and up to date as ever. Those who believe in the power of "the insistent present" in teaching should be glad of this. As examples of broadcasts more specifically designed for present conditions, there is a series called "If I were British", which succeeds "If you were French", and is meant to make us look afresh at our own distinctive structure of life; "Current Affairs", as before; and a News Commentary which explains items in the everyday news on which children may welcome more information. And, as an example of the infiltration of the insistent present elsewhere, that hardy perennial "Science and Gardening" takes as its theme "Increasing the Yield".

School broadcasts are a teaching aid which should be particularly well suited to war-time conditions. When prices are rising they are a means of obtaining new information which has not become dearer. When paper is scarcer an ingenious teacher can use them as a starting point for all kinds of new oral work. Schools which find themselves without accommodation or equipment of pre-war standard, rediscover in their wireless set a "resident Djinn" who for long periods can charm away much material inconvenience. In air-raid shelters—but why elaborate the obvious? I have lately heard of several schools who mean to listen in their shelters this winter if the air-raid nuisance goes on. Only the other day in a 'catacomb' under a school I listened with a class of boys and four of their masters to a broadcast on Leeuwenhoek, the inventor of the microscope. The set boomed a little in the narrow space, but every one could hear quite well, and after the broadcast we had a lively discussion for a further twenty minutes, only ended by the 'all clear'. We all felt that Hitler had been foiled that afternoon.

It has been well said that the B.B.C's function in war-time is to reflect the spirit of the country. Because education will go on in spite of air-raids it may be part of the service of school broadcasting to reflect the spirit of the schools. Dr. Keen in his opening broadcast of the year described in detail the ways in which some half a dozen schools have developed their gardens since the war, and the work of these half-dozen is only typical of that of hundreds more. This is one way of 'reflecting'. Another is in the programme "Singing Together", which is a collection, continually growing, of all the best songs for singing in schools. Similarly, most of the "Games with Words" have been played in this school or that, but few schools probably by themselves would have played them all. In less obvious ways than these good ideas from schools are constantly being reflected in every programme and use can be made of the light of every little candle which throws its beams so far.

NOTE.—Two other documents besides the Board's new leaflet will be helpful in reviewing the service of school broadcasting—the Annual Schedule of Broadcasts to Schools, out since July, and the Autumn Term Schedule, just out, both issued by the Central Council for School Broadcasting, 6 Duchess Street, London, W. 1.

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A BOOK OF SHORT PLAYS

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This is a new anthology issued under the auspices of the English Association, and intended to be a companion volume to *English Short Stories of To-day* and *English Essays of To-day*. The primary aim of the selection is to provide a representative list of plays for the general reader and for studying in schools, rather than for acting. There are glossarial notes, a preface and some introductory notes. The following plays are included : *Abraham and Isaac* (Browe MS.) ; *Everyman* ; John Heywood's *Wether* ; *A Yorkshire Tragedy* ; William Browne of Tavistock's *Inner Temple Masque* ; Sheridan's *St. Patrick's Day* ; Tennyson's *The Falcon* ; J. M. Synge's *Riders to the Sea* ; Maurice Baring's *Catherine Parr* ; Laurence Housman's *Royal Favour* ; J. M. Barrie's *Shall We Join the Ladies* ; Clifford Barr's *Silly Willy* ; Naomi Mitchison's *Nix-Nought-Nothing*.

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British Film Institute.—The importance of the educational campaign, undertaken by the British Film Institute at the request of the Board of Education during the spring and summer to investigate the use which was being made of the film in the Reception and Neutral Areas, is stressed in its Seventh Annual Report. It is noted that one effect of the war on the work of the Institute has been to create a great demand for programmes of both instructional and entertainment films for evacuated children and adults, various units of the Services, schools and foreign refugees in this country. Each month some 600 films are dispatched.

The work of the National Film Library has developed very rapidly during the year and now has an added importance, since the film records of the present day will make interesting studies for future historians, sociologists, and for students of mass psychology in war-time. Thanks to a grant from the Privy Council, a property has been bought in the country and a set of model temperature-controlled vaults for the preservation of film has been erected. In two of these the Government have asked to be allowed to store some of the 1914–18 war films.

The most important discovery of the year is the only existing copy of the film record of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee. With the addition of thirteen more early Chaplin films the Library now claims to have the most complete collection in the world, for it contains forty-three of the first forty-eight produced. Other acquisitions were two early sound films, "Dawn Patrol" and "Hollywood Review", produced in 1929; "Pleasure Garden", made in 1926, the first film which Alfred Hitchcock directed; and Will Barker's spectacular production, "Jane Shore", the British film made in 1913, which some people say had such an effect on D. W. Griffiths and led him to make his "Birth of a Nation".

Seven new teaching films have been produced in the last twelve months. During 1941 the main direction of the Institute's policy must be to find ways and means to restart their production, for teaching by film has acquired an additional importance since the war and its attendant evacuation. Sir William Brass, Chairman of the Governing Body, suggested that Mr. Bevin should give consideration to using films for training labour for munitions work; that Captain Oliver Lyttelton should consider their use in connexion with the export drive; and that Mr. Ramsbotham, the President of the Board of Education, might consider their use in the Board's new campaign for physical training among adolescents.

TOPICS AND EVENTS

ANNIE M. DAVIES

THE death took place, on October 27, of Miss Annie M. Davies, of Waterloo, near Liverpool, only sister of Sir Alfred T. Davies, first Permanent Secretary to the Welsh Department, Board of Education.

Miss Davies was a pioneer in the field of physical training for women and children. As early as 1886 she designed and had built for herself a gymnasium for women and girls at Waterloo, and for many years served as organizer of physical training for the Liverpool Pupil Teachers' College.

As the first specialist inspector in physical training to the Central Welsh Board she was responsible for the oversight of the teaching of that subject in over a hundred secondary schools, besides acting as occasional inspector for the Board of Education in a score or so of other secondary schools in the Principality.

ELLEN AUGUSTA CRAWLEY LLOYD-WILLIAMS

The death of Mrs. Lloyd-Williams, Principal of Moreton Hall, Weston Rhyn, Shropshire, on December 3, 1940, creates a real void in educational circles in Shropshire and in Wales, where her work was widely known and where she herself was greatly loved.

By no means the least distinguished member of a distinguished family, Mrs. Lloyd-Williams was the daughter of the Reverend James Crawley Vincent, M.A., Vicar of Caernarvon, and granddaughter of the Very Reverend James Vincent Vincent, M.A., Dean of Bangor. Her brothers, the late J. E. Vincent, *Times* Correspondent and Editor of *Country Life*, the late Sir Hugh Vincent and Sir William Vincent, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., took much interest in, and were intimately connected with, her educational work at Moreton Hall.

Mrs. Lloyd-Williams learned much of the routine of school life as the wife of the late J. J. Lloyd-Williams, M.A., Headmaster of St. David's College, Lampeter, and of Carmarthen, Oswestry, and Ruthin Schools. On her husband's retirement in 1913, she turned her attention to girls' education, with the result that the school she founded now at Moreton Hall, is one of the best known in Wales and the Border counties. Mrs. Lloyd-Williams was the centre of a world for all lovers of the cultural side of life—music, art, literature and drama in that district and far beyond.

"She lives in the sunshine of her soul", said the late Archbishop of Wales, one of her earliest friends, and, on another occasion "her wit and common-sense are worth a whole benchful of bishops"; and that was a fitting description of one whose understanding, courage, and infinite patience through recent years of suffering were a real inspiration to all who knew and loved her.

She leaves eleven children, two of whom are the Chief Constables of Worcestershire and Cardiganshire, seven of whom have been at the University and medical or other training colleges, and four of whom are still connected with scholastic work.

Teachers and National Service. — Administrative Memorandum No. 263 states that war work to which teachers have been transferred through the Central Register will be treated as war service under the Local Government Staffs (War Service) Act, 1939, and the Teachers' Superannuation (War Service) Act, 1939. The Board hope that school authorities will recognize the national importance of such employment, and that they will cooperate with the Government by facilitating the release of the teachers concerned.

Calling-Up of Teachers.—The Board of Education and the Scottish Education Department, in circulars to local authorities, state that it has been decided that the Schedule of Reserved Occupations is to be suspended to the extent of allowing teachers above the age of reservation to take commissions in the Royal Air Force Volunteer Reserve. This follows a decision made in August to permit the enrolments of teachers with suitable qualifications in the Army Officers' Emergency Reserve. It has now been decided that the deferment of the calling-up of teachers above the age of 25, who were placed in medical Grade III because of their defective eyesight, will not be continued after January next. This new decision has been made because of the needs of the fighting services for more Grade III recruits. Those who are in Grade III on account of other defects will not be called up for the present. The Board and the Department recognize that the calling-up of numbers of Grade III teachers will add to the difficulties of staffing the schools. They hope, however, that the authorities and governing bodies will make the best arrangements possible in the circumstances.

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Courses for Prospective Members of Aircraft Crews.—The Board of Education have been informed by the Air Ministry that the need for pilots, observers, and other members of aircraft crews is constantly increasing and this on a large scale. It is found that many candidates who present themselves to Selection Boards are quite suitable as regards physical qualities but lack the basic educational standard in mathematics and English which will fit them for entry to one of the Air Ministry's training schools. Administrative Memorandum No. 261 stresses the great importance of making such candidates fit for this service by giving them such instruction as is needed to bring them up to the required standard, particularly in mathematics, but also in English. It has therefore been arranged that those who are judged by the Selection Boards to be suitable apart from their educational standard will be attested at selection and sent home on " deferred service ". During this period, when they will carry on their normal civil employment, the Ministry hope that they will have the opportunity, by means of part-time courses, of making good their educational deficiencies. The procedure for enrolment and instruction suggested by the Ministry is outlined in the Memorandum.

Secondary Schools Amending Regulations, 1940.—Amending Regulations, 1939, were intended to give automatic compensation to all direct-grant schools which had suffered an appreciable loss in the number of pupils in attendance. As most of these schools have now largely recovered their pupils, the Board of Education announce that they do not propose to continue the automatic increase in grant. Provision will be made, however, for dealing with exceptional cases of schools which, owing to evacuation, have incurred special expenditure or are unable to meet reasonable expenses of maintenance.

Meals in Grant-aided Secondary Schools.—Circular 1520 on the provision of meals for school children applied mainly to public elementary schools. Circular 1531 suggests that authorities should now consider the suggestions made in the earlier circular in relation to secondary, junior technical, and similar schools, and also to the need for removing certain differences between the charges made for meals to children at elementary and at secondary schools.

School Canteens.—Special allowances of foods for school canteens have been agreed to by the Ministry of Food in consultation with the Board of Education, and details are given in Administrative Memorandum No. 262. School canteens not yet registered as catering establishments, including those serving uncooked meals or snacks of the Oslo breakfast type, should apply for registration in order to obtain supplies of rationed foods.

Age of Admission to Training Colleges.—The Board of Education propose to prescribe 18 years on December 31 in the year of admission as the minimum age of admission to training colleges in 1941, and until further notice, for both men and women students.

Compulsory Attendance and Evacuation.—Mr. Ramsbotham has announced that steps are being taken to enforce attendance at school and to make a comprehensive survey of the educational situation in England and Wales. Local education authorities have been asked to make a return giving details of the effects of war conditions on the life and work of the schools, and showing the extent to which children are getting full-time education. The Government have rejected compulsory evacuation from London as " undesirable and impracticable ". Powers are being taken, however, to order the medical examination of any child when there is reason to believe it is suffering in body or in mind from retention in London, and, if the examination proves this to be the case, compulsory evacuation will follow. Powers are also being taken to secure the medical examination of children living in shelters, and their treatment for incipient diseases.

School Air Raid Shelters.—In our last issue we said : " It is indefensible that, while the A.R.P. authority for the area can provide public shelters without cost to itself, the same authority in its capacity of local education authority for the area must provide half the cost of any school shelters." This grievance is now removed. Mr. Ramsbotham, replying to a question by Mr. Ammon in the House of Commons on December 10, said, " The Board propose to pay grant at the rate of 100 per cent on expenditure incurred by local education authorities on the construction and equipment of school shelters under contracts entered into on or after October 19 last, on the understanding that shelters so aided shall, where required, be made available for the use of the general public after school hours."

Communication with Teachers in an Emergency.—Administrative Memorandum No. 266 asks local education authorities in the major urban centres to keep advised of the addresses and telephone numbers of teachers who propose to spend the week-end elsewhere, in case circumstances should arise which would make it necessary to decide upon a sudden evacuation of a particular school.

Education Now and To-morrow.—A week-end discussion on " Education Now and To-morrow " has been arranged by the New Education Fellowship. It will be held at Springfield St. Mary, 33 Banbury Road, Oxford, from January 3 to 5, and is open to non-members. Inquiries should be sent to Miss Clare Soper at 101 Wembdon Road, Bridgwater, Somerset, or to Mr. V. Ogilvie, N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1.

Lectures at Reading.—L.C.C. teachers who have been evacuated to Reading have taken advantage of the presence of a university in their new home-town to organize courses of lectures which have been given by members of the academic staff. They have been warmly supported and have proved most successful. The venture started in the Autumn Term, 1939, with six lectures dealing with the history and geography of Reading, including two given by the distinguished medievalist Professor F. M. Stenton. This was followed in the Spring Term of this year by six more lectures on various topics and by a course in the Summer Term on the geology, botany and agriculture of the Reading region. These latter lectures were given by the professors of the subjects concerned and were followed up by field excursions and by visits to the University Farm and Horticultural Station and to the National Institute for Research in Dairying. The enthusiasm shown by the evacuated teachers has justified the renewal of the scheme during the present Session. During the Autumn Term of 1940 two lectures each were given dealing with the development of keyboard and choral music (with illustrations) by Dr. Thornton Lofthouse, two by Mr. Robert Gibbings on his experiences as an artist, and two on social reconstruction after the war by Dr. E. S. Budden. Arrangements have been made for a course of six lectures on English Literature by Mr. H. V. Dyson to be given during the Lent Term of 1941. This informal association of the University and the L.C.C. Teachers in Reading is no doubt typical of what is being done in many places to maintain in some measure the cultivation of intellectual interests of which many teachers owing to evacuation would otherwise have been deprived.

Courses for Youth Leaders.—A course for youth leaders and youth organizers has been arranged by the Board of Trustees of Homerton College in collaboration with the Board of Education. It will be held at Homerton College, Cambridge, from January 4 to 18, and is open to both men and women.

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NEW BOOKS

H. A. L. FISHER

THESE memoirs* were cut short in April, 1940, by the tragic death of H. A. L. Fisher on his way to the tribunal of conscientious objectors. They begin with a charming account of the author's childhood and schooldays. He was "never really happy" at his preparatory school, but "enjoyed every moment" of his life at Winchester. Nevertheless, he recognizes that the intellectual training given there was too one-sided. "We hardly touched the skirt of the sciences. The vast field of modern knowledge was a closed book to us." It was natural that he should go from Winchester to New College, though his family tradition pointed to Christ Church. The venerable Warden, Dr. Sewell, observed to him on the evening of his first Sunday, "The most important part of your education here, Mr. Fisher, will be the reading of the lessons in Chapel." He remarks on the changes which the prodigious rush of new knowledge has brought about in university examinations. "The Greats man must now pass from specialist to specialist."

It was largely due to the influence of York Powell that Fisher turned his back upon philosophy and resolved to devote himself to modern history. From Oxford he went to Paris. There he met Le Sage. "I was filled with humiliation," he says, "to find that a Frenchman junior to myself should know so much that was of vital importance to my own country of which I, despite all my Oxford education, was profoundly ignorant." He found that the French standard of work was much more severe than that exacted at Oxford. He was impressed by the results obtained by the great psychiatrist, Charcot, and learned from him that, since the state of the body inevitably affects the action of the mind, the study of the human body is part of the historian's duty. "Physical causes," he says, "have been unduly neglected by historians." Lord Cromer attributed the British conquest of the Sudan to a sore throat which prevented him from impressing upon General Gordon with sufficient clarity the instructions of the London Cabinet. Fisher even contemplated taking a three years' course at the Salpêtrière, but decided that he could not afford the time. He records a remark by Renan. "You wish to reconcile the Catholic and Protestant Churches. Study St. Francis. He is what Catholics and Protestants have in common."

After Paris he went to Germany and was impressed by the cordial friendliness and open-hearted simplicity of the German students, as well as by their idleness which, he says, "would never have been tolerated even in one of our royal foundations at Oxford or Cambridge". This general friendliness had so far been hardly affected by the stream of bitterness against Britain which poured from its fountain-head Treitschke. "The doctrine of the Punic wars was abroad through Germany. . . . Britain was Carthage. Germany was Rome."

Fisher's work as Modern History Tutor at Oxford was congenial to him, but he says, "I had always a haunted feeling that learning and scholarship and the lettered life can bring content only if combined with some more practical form of active service to the community." In 1916 he accepted, after some hesitation, Lloyd George's invitation to become President of the Board of Education. The Prime Minister thought that "we had now reached a point in our history when the country would take more educational reform from an educationalist than from a politician". His first year of office was "one of the most anxious and terrible in history", only redeemed by the entry of the United States into the war. He decided that the general framework of the educational system as designed by Morant and the Act of 1902 had better remain undisturbed. He coquetted with the idea of making teachers civil servants, but rejected it owing to the danger to educational freedom which it would involve. His maiden speech in the House of Commons was on the Education Estimates for 1917. He spoke for two hours and twelve minutes, and, when Bonar Law remarked that he had used no notes, he replied that he had learned the speech by heart. The reviewer was fortunate enough to hear this speech and can testify to the breathless attention with which it was listened to by the whole House, and to the tumultuous applause which greeted the speaker when he had finished.

At first he proposed to group local authorities in larger units, but the proposal was received with so much opposition that he decided to abandon it. History will almost certainly pronounce the verdict that Fisher was right, and his noisy opponents wrong. "Will it be possible," asked the Hadow Report, "for the country to acquiesce permanently in the division of part of the secondary grade of education between two separate authorities in the same area?"

Fisher was disappointed that the proposed abolition of half-time and the development of practical education did not win greater support from the Labour Party and its supporters. "I don't want my daughter to be taught cooking and practical things like that", said an excellent working-class mother of a family in Sheffield. However, the Bill was successfully steered through all its stages, and, supplemented by the Teachers' Superannuation Act, became law in 1918. "Young man," said Mr. John Burns, "I have been watching you in committee. You do not know how to get a Bill through. You try to make your speeches interesting. Send them to sleep, Mr. Fisher, send them to sleep."

The debt which educationists in general and teachers in particular owe to the Fisher Act is still only imperfectly realized. It cleared away much of the examination tangle in favour of a single School Certificate examination, and, as Fisher observes, "the many defects which have since been discovered in this established incubus on the young must not blind us to the evils and inconveniences which it was the means of removing". The growth of secondary schools was greatly stimulated by half a million of new money, the development of central schools was foreshadowed, university education was for the first time aided from state funds, teachers had their salaries roughly doubled and were provided with pensions.

After the passing of the Act, only a fraction of Fisher's time was devoted to the calls of his own department. The Prime Minister was inclined to invite him to exchange Education for India, but at the last moment, partly owing to a petition from a Teachers' Conference protesting against his removal, India was given to Edwin Montagu.

One of the least enviable of Fisher's Cabinet tasks was to assist the Government in the settlement with Ireland, and the chapter headed "Ireland and Other Problems" is one of absorbing interest. The chapters dealing with his visits to Canada and the United States in 1909 and 1924 are unfortunately unfinished.

The autobiography contains many vivid sketches of the various personalities with whom the author came into contact—at Oxford, W. L. Courtney, Jowett, Walter Pater, A. L. Smith; in Paris, Renan, Sabatier, Rothenstein; at the Board of Education, Herbert Lewis, W. N. Bruce, Selby Bigge. There is too a notable tribute to Lloyd George's resource in council and skill in management. There are portraits of Fisher's mother and father, and of the author himself at various ages. There, is, too, a foreword by Mrs. Fisher, to whom we owe a deep debt of gratitude for the production of this brilliant, though unfortunately unfinished, autobiography.

"E. K. S."

* **An Unfinished Autobiography.** By H. A. L. FISHER. (7s. 6d. net. Oxford University Press.)

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THE NATURAL APPROACH TO BIOLOGY

By T. H. HAWKINS, M.Sc., F.L.S.

IT has long been an accepted policy on the part of biology teachers that the early introduction of their subject to younger pupils should be based upon a natural approach. The innate interest of the child in the motion, feeding, play, and other habits of living animals should be advantageously utilized from the earliest moment in order to increase their appreciation and subsequently extend their range of inquiry. This approach has been consistently recommended in the publications of the Board of Education and received particular emphasis in the Spens Report. The Consultative Committee's suggestion might have received added support if it had gone even farther in advocating regular, periodic returns to the study, in their natural state, of those animals and plants which excited enthusiasm in our early lives and which, for many of us, give supreme joy and relaxation from the more harassing events of life in peace and war. Taken in the order suggested, the books here remarked upon would afford an introduction to the study of elementary biology, graded in stages from the junior school up to the first year in the university.

As the title indicates, *What to Look for in the Country*[1] would serve rather as an appetizer than as a bill of country fare. Hints about how to proceed in order to obtain greatest satisfaction from the rich and colourful life of the country are set down with such admirable simplicity and such obvious relish that quite young children who have read the book will undertake their first investigations into natural lore with a feeling of exciting adventure.

Mr. Sandars' books[2] may be used to provide more solid sustenance when the child's appetite had been whetted with the observations on what to look for in the countryside. *A Book of Common Beasts* is a delightful introduction to the study of familiar animals, wild and domesticated. If added to any school library, junior, senior, or secondary, its appointed place on the shelves would be consistently bare. Nevertheless, the dogmatism of the author would need exposition and clarification by the class teacher on some points, *e.g.* the author's categorical statement that the grey squirrel is ousting the red is, according to animal ecologists who have investigated this question, open to contradiction, while the true cause of the spouting of the whale is still being discussed. It is disconcerting, too, to find Mr. Sandars occasionally resorting to the use of those ' hardy annuals ' which biology teachers are constantly trying to eradicate, *e.g.* ' vocal *chords* ' and the use of the word ' animal ' when he has ' mammal ' in mind. In this book, and in *A Common Book of Birds*, a more serious criticism is that the anthropomorphic interpretations are often so obtrusive that they appear ludicrous. How much longer will it be before natural history writers appreciate that objective description need not be lacking in literary discrimination nor in aesthetic appeal; it is unfortunate that animals are so frequently credited with properties which have not yet been attributed to them by continuous experiment and observation. The books must be highly recommended, however, if only for the evolutionary, albeit astonishingly simple, approach to the problem of domestication. Mr. Sandars' artistic representations of birds and various animals are colourful if not exactly clear in outline.

A Second Book of Biology[3] is intended to serve as a link between the authors' *First Book of Biology* which is used in senior schools and the lower forms of secondary schools, and their well-established *Elementary Biology for Matriculation*. It is difficult to believe that this book will fit into the educational niche for which it is intended, since it approximates more closely to the latter book than to the former, leaving the break from the elementary book too sharp and abrupt. A reading of Part I also leaves one with the doubt whether Miss Phillips and Miss Cox have succeeded in carrying out the suggestion contained in the Spens Report which they commend and have used as their guiding principle—namely, to help children in the middle school " to recognize quickly and to know the names of as many of the plant (and animal) inhabitants of their area as possible ".

The inclusion of Amoeba, Chlamydomonas, and other organisms, whose examination would involve careful use of micro-apparatus, is out of place for pupils of the age of 14 or 15 years. In the early stages of the book it is unfortunate that the resemblance to their matriculation text-book will leave the authors open to the charge of needless repetition. In the second part of the book, which contains an excellent objective study of the ecological inter-relationships between plants and animals, they are completely vindicated, both with regard to their original aim and its execution. Here one is keenly aware that the collated material has not been merely ' mugged up ', but that the living organisms described are not only well known but also well loved by the authors. Part I is a boiled-down, potted version of the university courses in botany and zoology. This factual material may be of easy access to the teacher and may not be difficult to teach. Its inculcation may be useful as a preparation for the current examination syllabuses in biology, but it can in no wise be said to elucidate or foster that attitude which the Spens Committee had in mind when they wrote that the possibilities of biology teaching had not been fully apprehended in schools.

The book contains some mis-statements and inaccuracies, while occasionally difficult terms are introduced with either no or an inadequate explanation.

(*Continued on page 28*)

[1] **What to Look for in the Country.** By R. BENNETT. (2s. University of London Press.)

[2] ***(a)* A Book of Common Beasts.** ***(b)* A Book of Common Birds.** Written and Illustrated by E. SANDARS. (Limp Cloth, 1s. 6d. each. Cloth Boards, 1s. 9d. each. Oxford University Press.) Jy

[3] **A Second Book of Biology.** By MARY E. PHILLIPS and LUCY E. COX. (4s. 6d. University of London Press.)

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The most one can say of Mr. Dyball's book[4] is that it adheres rigidly to matriculation examination syllabuses. The introduction of anthropomorphic statements frequently distorts objective truths. The errors arise from the fact that the author has attempted to include far too much detail in a book of this size. Information should be graded in such a way that simpler issues lead gradually to the more difficult concepts. In elementary biology, 'woolly' thinking and loose phrasing can so easily lead the student to the assumption of purposive reactions on the parts of plants and animals.

Prof. Hogben's book[5] is a second edition of a work that was originally prepared as a supplementary reader to the more rigid lectures in animal biology taken by students of higher school certificate and first year university standard. Emphasis throughout is placed on function rather than on structure. The present edition follows the same design as the original, although the pattern has been improved by adequate revision of the whole book and the complete rewriting of certain chapters. An advantageous innovation is that the combination of author Hogben with artist Horrabin which was so successful in the preparation of *Science for the Citizen* and *Mathematics for the Million* has again been used. Mr. Horrabin has redrawn each illustration and has added many new ones, in which diagrammatic clarity is constantly emphasized, although never at the expense of artistic refinement.

A necessary comment on the book is that Prof. Hogben frequently over-estimates the sum total of practical information possessed by university students after a one-year course in zoology. This is evident in the chapter dealing with the principle of succession with special reference to the vertebrate skeleton. The new edition is a useful addition to the current stock of literature and should establish itself as speedily and successfully as its predecessor.

[4] **A Biology Course for Schools.** By R. H. DYBALL. (4s. 6d. Blackie.)

[5] **Principles of Animal Biology.** By Prof. L. HOGBEN. Second Edition, Revised. (7s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

THE READING HABITS OF BOYS AND GIRLS

By T. RAYMONT

IN the July number of this *Journal* there appeared an article by Mr. Allen Huntley which forms a practical comment upon the question of 'set books' in English, and also forms a suitable introduction to the remarks which follow upon Mr. A. J. Jenkinson's new book.* Last year, Mr. Huntley tells us, it was his business to work through a volume of "Tennyson and Browning" selections with his School Certificate forms. Such poems as "The Grammarian's Funeral", "Fra Lippo Lippi", "Andrea del Sarto", "The Two Voices", and a long extract from "In Memoriam" were included. "Great stuff," says Mr. Huntley—"yes, to me, and to perhaps 10 per cent of the boys, the few really literary souls, but, however simplified, beyond the genuine grasp of the vast majority." After giving other recent and equally striking instances, he declares that we must offer the boy what is not merely solid and nutritious, but also palatable. "Enjoyment is all, or nearly all, in this matter of books and reading, and it is the average boy, the sturdy backbone of his school and his country, whom we must primarily consider."

It is forty years ago since the late Sir John Adams gave currency to the saying that to teach boys Latin should imply not only a knowledge of Latin, but also a knowledge of boys. He also used to say that such a truth needs to be hammered in for fifty years before it takes much practical effect. He was so far right that we still need to insist that the first duty of any one responsible for English teaching is to ascertain the relevant content of his pupils' minds. From the high professorial point of view, such content may be the most deplorable tripe. But it is tripe that has to be reckoned with. The professor who ignores it, and inflicts upon boys literary masterpieces which find no points of contact in their minds, adopts the surest method of defeating his own ends. Even his recollections of his own boyhood may seriously mislead him in dealing with boys whose tastes and interests and upbringing are different.

Mr. Jenkinson went to the root of the matter in choosing to investigate what children of ages 12 plus, 13 plus, 14 plus, and 15 plus do as a matter of cold fact read of their own accord in their own free time. He points out that the public and secondary schools, schools which have sixth forms, have not solved the problem of the "middle school", boys from 12 plus to 15 plus, but have often masked and distorted it by a too intensive pursuit of the School Certificate. The central and senior schools, which have no sixth form, are "brought up against the problem, naked and unadorned, of teaching the age group 11 plus to 14 plus". The recent reorganization has in fact isolated, and directed undivided attention to, "the age group which, above all, nobody knows how to teach".

Mr. Jenkinson has drawn his investigation material from the middle-school section of secondary schools, and from senior schools. Here we can only summarize rapidly some of his findings as to what boys read (and they *do* read voraciously) when left to themselves. Stories of school life dwindle in popularity as the 15 plus limit is reached in the secondary school, but in the senior school their popularity is well maintained. Detective stories make a far stronger appeal to the secondary boys than to their coevals of the senior schools. Adventure stories are universal favourites, but definitely more so in senior than in secondary schools. Love stories are shunned by boys up to 14 plus. They are simply made uncomfortable by descriptions of love affairs, and cannot tolerate analyses of them. What does this mean for the literature syllabuses of the middle school and the senior school? It means, says the author, that "the greater part of the world's literature is disqualified for entering there. The bulk of the best literature is not fit for boys of these ages"—not because it is indecent, but because "it is, to them, incomprehensible, dull, and dulling". At 15 plus boys begin to be attracted by love stories. Girls begin a year or two earlier. The most marked differences between boys and girls are that girls give much less of their time to adventure stories, considerably less to detective stories, and a great deal more to stories of home and school life and to love stories.

The author's main position is that persons whose business it is to guide or to influence the reading of boys and girls of age group 12 plus to 14 plus or 15 plus must take careful note of what naturally appeals to them. If much of it is trash, the trash must be gradually improved upon. Teaching literature at these ages should give way to providing literature and influencing the choice of literature. Appreciation lessons are premature and useless. Private reading in school should become a regular practice. Less time should be given to poetry, and none to essays. Some of these recommendations may sound rather shocking to the academically minded. They will not shock any one who has come to close quarters with the practical problem which the author squarely faces in this excellent book.

* **What do Boys and Girls Read? an Investigation into Reading Habits, with some Suggestions about the Teaching of Literature in Secondary and Senior Schools.** By A. J. JENKINSON. (7s. 6d. net. Methuen.)

Art and Handicraft

The Sculptures of Michelangelo

(Phaidon Edition.) (10s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

In the June number of *The Journal* we welcomed the publication by the Phaidon Press of its admirable collection of the paintings of Michelangelo. The present volume contains 145 reproductions of the artist's sculptures. It is in every way worthy of the preceding volume. The reproductions, which are all from original photographs, reveal

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the work of the master as no explanatory description could do. The Foreword is written by Ludwig Goldscheider, and the Introduction, which contains 55 illustrations, gives clear and illuminating accounts of the sculptures. The price of the book is amazingly low for the value which it gives. The publishers claim with justice that this edition " represents the sole contemporary interpretation of Michelangelo's sculptures ".

Classics

Life and Thought in the Greek and Roman World

By Prof. M. CARY and Prof. T. J. HAARHOFF. (8s. 6d. net. Methuen.)

Two travellers stray into the ancient Mediterranean world, ask questions, return, and compose a guide-book. Their work is logically arranged, yet it is not a potted Dictionary of Antiquities, but a three-dimensional picture in which the ideas of the ancients are integrated to their material setting. Occasionally the extremely probable is allowed, for brevity sake, to pass as the exclusive truth: " Etruria . . . was colonised about 800 B.C. by immigrants from Asia Minor." In the section on written and spoken Latin the implication that metrical ictus (whatever metrical ictus was) could change word-stress is less justifiable. Little else can be said against this vivid book. Its immense protreptic value lies in the modernity of its approach. The travellers sympathize with the ancients for having had no opportunity of tasting potatoes and tomatoes, but to overlook tea and coffee was their own fault; they look at Aristotle with the eyes of Darwin, inquire prices (unskilled slave—£4 to £10; lecture by Polemo—£6,000), note down the more human of the election posters at Pompeii, and in a word make a living thing of the ancient world.

The Year's Work in Classical Studies, 1939

Edited by the late Dr. S. G. OWEN. (3s. 6d. net. Bristol: Arrowsmith)

Bibliographies briefly indicating scope and value of recent studies, and for the non-specialist, surveys of work done in various fields. The slightly out-of-touch enthusiast should now be able to give up-to-date answers to those inevitable questions " Do they still discover classical MSS.? " (Yes—there is a new Vatican *Horace*, p. 12): " Do we really know anything definite about Homer's geography? " (Yes, Nestor's palace has been discovered 4 miles N.W. of the classical Pylos, p. 82.) Unfortunately the present number will probably have no successor during war-time, but materials are still being collected.

Proceedings of the Classical Association

May, 1940. Vol. XXXVII. With Rules and List of New Members. (Murray.)

Sir Stephen Gaselee presents a conspectus of ancient and modern " intelligence officers " to the classics; Prof. W. B. Anderson defends Aeneas' claim to *pietas;* Miss J. M. C. Toynbee reviews recent discoveries in the Campus Martius and at Ostia.

De Bello Civili

By M. ANNAEI LUCANI. Book I. Edited by R. J. GETTY. (6s. Cambridge University Press.)

This edition, the first of Lucan I for 64 years, invites the reader to study Lucan's rhetorical technique in detail before presuming to interpret his meaning: a synopsis of Quintilian's jottings on the subject is provided by the introduction. Some readers may think it impious of Mr. Getty to assail the infallibility of Housman's 1926 edition, or to hint that the man who wrote

" When Severn down to Buildwas ran
Coloured with the *death* of man "

could be insensitive to the name and nature of rhetoric; if so, Mr. Getty's remarks on lines 427, 463, and perhaps 282, may make them change their minds.

(*Continued on page* 30)

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Education

Magdalen College: a History of Magdalen College School, Oxford

By R. S. STANIER. (10s. 6d. net. Oxford: Blackwell.)

This is a notable addition to our school histories. The author is a member of the staff, and both the publisher and the printer are old boys of the school. The story of the school is traced from its foundation in the fifteenth century to the present day. The close association of the school with Magdalen College gives the story added interest. In its long history, the school has suffered many vicissitudes. It has endured " the whips of Henry VIII and the scorpions of Edward VI ". It suffered a Parliamentary visitation in 1648, and shared in the historic conflict with the Catholic James II. A new class-room, now the college library, was built in 1852. The school has always clung to the classical tradition, and it was not until 1875 that French and German were added to the curriculum. After the last war, the school became a grant-earning school, and admitted the usual percentage of scholars from the Oxford elementary schools. An approach to the City Education Authority for financial assistance, however, was not successful. In 1928 it removed to its new buildings on the site opposite Magdalen College, on which, as is revealed in Fisher's *Unfinished Autobiography*, Ned Warren intended to erect his post-graduate College for Research. The story of this public school, of its varying fortunes, and of the gradual modification of its curriculum and customs to meet modern needs is of peculiar interest at the present time. The volume has a number of illustrations of buildings, of persons and of documents. There are interesting appendices, including Dr. Johnson's stirring appeal on Commemoration Day, 1938, a map, and a good index.

Rugby

By C. R. EVERS. (English Public Schools.) (5s. net. Blackie.)

In this admirable history of Rugby, Mr. Evers describes its great Headmasters from Arnold onwards (with a well-deserved tribute to Vaughan). Clearly it is an exceptional school that has produced two Cabinet Ministers in the persons of the late Prime Minister and Lord Hankey, also several Air Vice-Marshals, authors as various as Mr. Guedalla and Mr. F. L. Lucas, scholars like Dr. Temple and Prof. Tawney: it is a school of wholesome traditions, where habits of hard work and individual responsibility are fostered.

Supplement to The Student's Handbook to the University and Colleges of Cambridge, 1940–41

(1s. net. Cambridge University Press.)

No edition of *The Student's Handbook to the University and Colleges of Cambridge* was published in 1940. The present pamphlet gives in shorter form some of the contents of the *Handbook*, and also supplements the edition of 1939. Any one who buys a copy of the *Handbook* for 1939–40 (obtainable at 7s. 6d. net, through any bookseller, or from the London office of the Cambridge University Press), will be supplied with a copy of the Supplement free of charge.

Annual Report on Public Instruction in Burma, 1938–1939

(Rs. 1.4 or 1s. 11d.; Rangoon, Superintendent of Government Printing and Stationery, Burma.)

A rather downhearted record of educational work and progress during a year in which indiscipline was rampant in schools and colleges, as it is apt to be in the East during times of political excitement. We may gather that the new Government of isolated Burma—it was separated from India in 1937—was not strong enough to deal with the disorders. Strength, it may be hoped, will come with experience. Meantime, despite disorder, there was progress. Enrolment increased. Expenditure increased. " Work was not by any means at a standstill."

English

The Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature

Edited by F. W. BATESON. Vol. I: 600–1660. Vol. 2: 1660–1800. Vol. 3: 1800–1900. Vol. 4: Index. (£7 7s. net. Cambridge University Press.)

It would be difficult to praise too highly the industry and scholarship which have gone to the compilation of this monumental work. It constitutes a record of all the writings which have a claim to be considered as English literature from the earliest times to the beginning of the present century, together with the supplementary literature to which they have given rise. There are also lists of the noteworthy newspapers, magazines, and pamphlets which have appeared since the invention of printing. As the preface remarks, " no type of printed book, from the chap-book to the scientific treatise, from the collection of hymns to the gift-book, from the schoolboy's ' crib ' to the treatise on whist, has been neglected ". Three volumes cover the periods A.D. 600 to 1660, 1660 to 1800, 1800 to 1900, and the fourth volume of 287 pages is the Index. The entries under Shakespeare cover 60 pages. Students of English literature owe a deep debt of gratitude to the Cambridge University Press, to the Editor, Mr. Bateson, and to all who collaborated with him in the production of this great work.

The Sceptred Isle: Shakespeare's Message for England at War

By Prof. G. WILSON KNIGHT. (1s. net. Oxford: Blackwell)

This is a timely production. The extracts are arranged in four sections (*a*) What England is; (*b*) How England should act; (*c*) What England must oppose; (*d*) What England stands for. They are skilfully woven into a whole by the compiler's comments. As the compiler says, quotations that we have hitherto regarded merely as splendid rhetoric now sound in our ears as a trumpet call. We cannot read John of Gaunt's speech on his deathbed, Henry V's address to the soldiers, Faulconbridge's words at the end of *King John*, without a new stirring of the blood. Cranmer's prophecy at the christening of the baby Elizabeth is charged with fresh poignancy:

" In her days every man shall eat in safety
Under his own vine what he plants; and sing
The merry songs of peace to all his neighbours.
God shall be truly known; and those about her
From her shall read the perfect ways of honour.
. . . Our children's children
Shall see this, and bless heaven."

In these days we indeed find in Shakespeare the voice of England.

Old and True

(Paper, 1s. 6d. net. Cloth, 2s. net. Published for *The Times* by the English Universities Press.)

Readers of *The Times* are familiar with the sayings which have appeared since the second week of the war under the heading " Old and True ", so called from Shakespeare's " There's a saying very old and true ". The present volume reproduces the first 250 quotations of the series, many of which were supplied by contributors. " There is every reason," says *The Times*, " why a nation at war should, if it can, march to the mighty measure of truth as it has been expressed in times past." This volume will be warmly welcomed, both by readers of *The Times* who will be glad to see these wise and pithy sayings embodied in a single volume, and by those who have not yet seen them.

The Diary of a Nobody

By G. GROSSMITH and W. GROSSMITH. (Everyman's Library.) (2s. 6d. net. Dent.)

Every one will welcome this new and cheap edition of a book which Mr. Belloc has called " one of the half-dozen immortal achievements of our time ".

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History

Germany, 1815–1890

By G. B. SMITH. (3s. 6d. Arnold.)

The former Headmaster of Sedbergh School is well employing the leisure of his retirement in writing the series of volumes on Modern European History to which the little book before us is the latest contribution. It is an excellent companion to the *History of France* published last year. With admirable lucidity it sets forth the story of German unification and expansion from the Treaty of Vienna to the fall of Bismarck. Only rarely is one inclined to dissent from Mr. Smith's sound judgments, but when he sets up Rousseau against Hegel one is bound to stress the fact that Hegel derived his political philosophy from Rousseau, with Kant and Fichte as intermediaries.

1848 : Chapters of German History

By V. VALENTIN. (12s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

The year 1848 was critical for Europe in general and for Germany in particular. It was the year of Revolution, the *annus mirabilis* of the nineteenth century. The book before us is a translation of a study by a German Liberal of the course of the Revolution in the German *Bund*, that included Austria. It tells in illuminating detail the tragic story of the mismanagement and collapse of the movement for German unification on a democratic basis. It is a timely work ; for the failure of German democracy paved the way for Bismarck, William II, and Hitler.

Mediterranean Problems

By G. EAST. (Discussion Books.) (2s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

Few of Messrs. Nelson's excellent Discussion Books have appeared so opportunely as this volume by Mr. Gordon East, the historical-geographer of the London School of Economics, on the Mediterranean. First, the geography of the inland sea is described ; secondly, its history is briefly surveyed ; finally the present-day positions and policies of Great Britain, France, Italy, and Spain are critically examined. No publicist—especially if he happens to be an Italian—should fail to procure and study diligently this masterly monograph. It is illustrated by no fewer than fifty-four sketch maps—and all for 2s. 6d.

Europe in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries (1789–1939)

By Prof. A. J. GRANT and Prof. H. TEMPERLEY. With a Supplementary Section dealing with the Year 1938–1939 by Prof. LILLIAN PENSON. New Edition. (16s. net. Longmans.)

A History of Modern Times : from 1789 to the Present Day

By D. M. KETELBEY. (8s. 6d. net. Harrap.)

Both of these text-books, each in its fifth edition, are so well known and so justly popular that it is unnecessary to do more than draw attention to the fact that they have been, so far as is possible, brought up to date. It must be confessed, however, that things now move so rapidly that even the events of 1939 seem to be ancient history.

John Pym, 1583–1643 : the Statesman of the Puritan Revolution

By S. R. BRETT. (10s. 6d. net. Murray.)

It is appropriate that this careful and scholarly biography of Pym should appear at this moment, for, on the one hand, the present year is the tercentenary of the meeting of the Long Parliament in which Pym was the dominant figure until his death, and, on the other hand, the great conflict now raging in Europe is fundamentally a struggle between the democratic principles of Pym and the totalitarian ideas of his chief opponent, Strafford. Hence Mr. Brett's able and sympathetic study is most timely. His reading has been wide and impartial : but it is strange to find that his bibliography does not include the recent works on Strafford of either Lady Burghclere or Lord Birkenhead.

(*Continued on page 32*)

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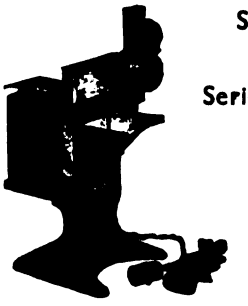

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Miscellany

A Dictionary of Clichés: with an Introductory Essay

By E. PARTRIDGE. (7s. 6d. net. Routledge.)

This work is novel, useful, and entertaining. The Oxford English Dictionary defines a cliché as "a stereotyped expression; a commonplace phrase". Mr. Partridge enlarges (why does he say "enlarge on"?) this definition. "A cliché is an outworn commonplace; a phrase, or short sentence, that has become so hackneyed that careful speakers and scrupulous writers shrink from it because they feel that its use is an insult to the intelligence of their audience or public." Mr. Partridge has mercifully queried a number of clichés as "a borderline case or an incipient cliché" and has asterisked others as "particularly objectionable". In the latter class are included "A Daniel come to judgment"; "a dog in the manger"; "foregone conclusion"; "dead man's shoes"; "good Samaritan"; "the golden mean"; "licking into shape"; "an open secret"; "a pretty kettle of fish"; "the prime of life"; "a storm in a teacup"; "turn of the tide"; "wear one's heart on one's sleeve". Now these may be clichés, including the quotations from the Bible, Shakespeare, and Fielding, but to stigmatize them as "particularly objectionable" is surely going much too far. In our recoil from the stereotyped and commonplace we must beware of relapsing into the commonplace and prosaic. Are "feigned weeping", "an exemplary judge", "the ideal average" really to be preferred to the phrases which he condemns? Quotations from the Bible, Shakespeare, Milton, Keats, Dickens, however familiar, are never commonplace, and can be used with great effect both in speech and in writing. Many will remember the effective use of Biblical quotations in the platform utterances of the late Sir George Lunn, whose knowledge of the Bible, like Sam Weller's knowledge of London, was "both extensive and peculiar" (cliché). However, Mr. Partridge has done good service in producing this collection—covering 250 pages—and it will "give" both speakers and writers "furiously to think" (a cliché not included in the collection).

All Aboard for Ararat

By H. G. WELLS. (3s. 6d. net. Secker & Warburg.)

This is a modern parable in questionable shape. A reincarnated Noah of the twentieth century discusses the problems of the day with a Personage, neither almighty nor omniscient, whose good intentions are constantly frustrated by a perverse and satanic Shadow. They contemplate and finally achieve an Ark of Escape from the inundations of war and violence which threaten to overwhelm the world, and, with a selected few, set out upon a voyage "by way of Ararat to Shinar again and so to mankind reunited in one brotherhood, growing in strength and power for ever". Communism, Socialism, Trade-unionism, and all the other "isms" of the day are discussed with refreshing frankness. The book ends—so far as it can be said to have an end—on a note of hopefulness. "Noah spoke at large: 'No man is beaten until he knows and admits he is beaten, and that I will never know nor admit.' 'There I am with you,' said the Lord." We resist the temptation to quote some of Mr. Wells' brilliant epigrams and witty turns of thought. The book must be read as a whole.

Keep Fit in War-Time

By Dr. H. ROBERTS. (1s. net. Watts.)

This short manual—consisting of only 90 pages—contains simple, clear, and practical advice about the care of our health in war-time. Fear and anxiety are two of the most potent enemies of real fitness. These can be overcome by a sound philosophy of life, a real sense of proportion, a just scale of values, and the cultivation of interests and activities which will divert the mind along healthier channels. We are given good advice about the care of the body, diet, exercise, and recreation. "Tens of thousands of people would improve their health if on one day in the week they would limit their diet to water and fresh fruit."

Modern Languages

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By N. W. H. SCOTT. (1s. 9d. Macmillan.)

These French exercises are meant to provide pupils with the linguistic drill they are likely to require throughout the school certificate year. The book is intended to teach rather than to test. Lists of words and phrases likely to be useful are included, although students are urged rather to use their own vocabulary. The author has had long experience of teaching and examining candidates.

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By K. G. BROOKS. Part 3. (2s. 6d. Dent.)

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A Modern French Course for Beginners

By A. C. CLARK. Third Edition, Revised. (2s. 6d. Hirschfeld.)

This first year's course in French should enable pupils to deal with such examinations as those of the Society of Arts or Chamber of Commerce. The overloaded time-table does not permit of sufficient time being given to Modern Languages—fifty hours' teaching a year is considered sufficient in some schools. One lesson of this book may take two or three school periods. The author has been wise to give the grammatical explanations in English.

Du Français? En Voila! Cours Élémentaire

By E. G. LE GRAND. (3s. 6d. Oliver & Boyd.)

The author of this elementary course has been teaching French in this country for thirty-five years and having tried all methods has produced his own and has endeavoured to make his pupils like it. He uses the short story—at first very easy and then increasing in difficulty, so the book is not only a reader but also a grammar. A few French songs are added at the end and the illustrations are well produced. The thick paper makes it a heavy book and it will probably serve as a missile.

French Technical Reader

Edited by H. C. STOCKWELL (Harrap's Modern Language Series). (2s. Harrap.)

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Music

New Paths in Music

By B. MAINE. (Discussion Books.) (2s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

It is not quite clear to what particular type of reader Mr. Basil Maine has addressed himself in his book, *New Paths in Music*. In the end, to be sure, he is establishing contact with his imagined grandson of 1990, and is presupposing that lad's possession of an intellectual curiosity at least the equal of his own. (And it is obvious that Mr. Maine's is tireless and far-seeking.) But the general appeal is more to 1940 than to 1990. It is to our own generation and to ourselves that this fluent and stimulating book is offered. No parochial view is taken of the musical scene. You are safe in Mr. Maine's care, whether in London or Budapest, Prague or New York, Paris or Helsingfors. These are centres in his ranging review of what he somewhere calls " the sprawling honeycomb " of contemporary music. In each centre he is ready to sharpen your appreciation of a predominant creative musician, and to set him clearly against his environment. His way is to reveal the man and his work from both national and international viewpoints. In all the difficult country of musical development since 1912 he walks securely, with the comfortable assurance that he knows where he is going, and how to get there. Going to America with the author—in Chapter V—is a particularly engaging trip if you share his pungent estimate of the creative and critical confusions in the musical life of that earnest country.

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(*Continued on page 34*)

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Religious Knowledge

The Bible of the World

Edited by R. O. BALLOU, in collaboration with Dr. F. SPIEGELBERG and Dr. H. L. FRIESS. (18s. net. Kegan Paul.)

This book contains in its 1,400 pages selections from the writings of the great world religions—Hindu, Buddhist, Confucianist, Taoist, Zoroastrian, Jewish, Christian, and Mohammedan. The task of selection was a prodigious one, and it extended over many years. The aim of the editors has been to lay before the reader the writings which are essential to an understanding of each of the eight religions concerned, but they have had in mind also the importance of the passages to modern religious thought, and their literary quality. The three-quarter of a million words of the Old and New Testaments have been reduced to less than one-quarter of a million, but the editors claim that from these the reader will acquire as intimate a knowledge of the Bible as the most diligent student of the authorized version. The story of the words and acts of Jesus is told as a single narrative, with references to each of the four Gospels. Selections from the apocryphal writings of the Old and New Testaments are included. The notes contain a short history of the Scriptures dealt with, a statement of the source from which the selected passages are taken, and suggested parallels and contrasts. There are a condensed bibliography, a glossary, and an index.

The book deserves—and will doubtless receive—the close attention of scholars and students of comparative religion. It will make an appeal also to the ordinary reader, who will through it make acquaintance for the first time with many literary masterpieces such as the beautiful Vedic hymns, the Chinese odes, and the charming stories of the Bhagavad-Gita. Moreover, as is suggested in the introduction, the volume will be helpful to the man who, while he may find it difficult to accept the dogmas of any one religion, is in revolt against the brute materialism which the totalitarian states have let loose in Europe, and is reaching out to the spiritual vision which lies behind all religions.

Science

A Text-Book of Heat

By Prof. H. S. ALLEN and R. S. MAXWELL. Parts 1 and 2. (Part 1, 10s. Part 2, 10s. 6d. Macmillan.)

Prof. H. S. Allen's and Mr. Maxwell's intention has been "to fill a place between an elementary text-book and a comprehensive treatise"—and they have admirably accomplished it. They have provided us with a book on Heat which gives a full account of recent research, while the historical treatment adopted enables one to see in proper perspective the ideas and principles of the science. The numerous biographical notices included add decidedly to the interest of the book.

Part 1 deals chiefly with the practical and experimental aspects of the subject, the mathematics used are very easy, the explanations are clearer and simpler than in many school text-books. Though somewhat extensive in scope, it would be excellently adapted to the needs of higher school certificate and scholarship pupils. Part 2 is much more mathematical: thermodynamics; theory of conduction, of convection, of radiation; quantum theory; and especially interesting chapters on probability and statistical methods which include some of the results of the Bose-Einstein and Fermi-Dirac schools. The somewhat unusual notation employed is particularly clear. This part would be suitable for university students.

The authors deserve our gratitude. A book such as theirs was badly needed. Every teacher of physics will want to read it—and probably to own a copy; and it should certainly find a place in every science library.

An Introduction to Chemistry

By A. C. CAVELL. Part 1: Inorganic Chemistry. (6s. Macmillan.)

An Introduction to Chemistry

By A. C. CAVELL. Parts 2 and 3: Physical and Organic Chemistry. (4s. Macmillan.)

Mr. Cavell's two volumes usefully cover a lot of ground, both up to the School Certificate stage, and, especially in the second volume, some way beyond it. They are thus likely to be very helpful to teachers preparing pupils for the Higher School Certificate Subsidiary, the Civil Service Commission and similar examinations.

There are many excellent features: interesting historical notes, placed at the ends of the chapters so that they do not over-complicate the argument: particularly clear practical directions, and, finally, several pages of 'revision notes' forming a sort of glossary—an idea perhaps worth extension. The second volume is well up to date and includes a simple and well-written chapter on the electronic theory of valency.

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Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

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Details from HEADMASTER'S SECRETARY.

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

MAR 1 1941

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FEBRUARY 1941

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

A MONTHLY RECORD AND REVIEW
with which is incorporated
THE SCHOOL WORLD

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

IN a recent issue we commented on the brutal attempt of the Nazi régime to exterminate the cultural heritage of Czecho-Slovakia. The similar though less ferocious treatment of Holland is well described by a Dutch correspondent of *The Times*. The Nazis have found, to their pained surprise, that " the campaign to win over the Dutch population by the familiar mixture of cajolery, promises, and threats has been a complete failure ". They have decided therefore that stronger action must be taken. The University of Leyden was founded in 1575 as the result of resistance to the Spanish oppressor, and is distinguished by such names as Scaliger and Einstein. This seat of learning has now been closed by one of Hitler's henchmen, on the ground that the students have been obstructive. The real reason is that the pursuit of truth for its own sake—a tradition upheld by Leyden through more than three and a half centuries—is inconsistent with Nazi doctrine. Hitler is said to admire Napoleon. May he soon learn the truth of Napoleon's saying that in the long run the spirit always triumphs over the sword !

Dutch Culture and Nazi Barbarism.

THERE is much discussion of the " new social order " to follow the war. Lord Elton, in *The Sunday Times*, remarks upon the impatience of some people for official pledges and for the immediate production of the ground-plan at least of another land fit for heroes to live in. He sees good reason for hastening slowly in this matter, and commends our instinctive shyness of paper constitutions made in advance. We have, he contends, solid foundations on which to begin building a new social order. During the last ten years we did not build enough aeroplanes and tanks, but " we halved the death-rate from tuberculosis, halved maternal and infant mortality, added three pounds to the average weight of elementary school children, and built a thousand houses a day—which was a good deal more than Germany, or for that matter any other country, achieved during the same period ". Lord Elton devotes a section of his article to the " educational trinity "—body, character, and mind. He urges that we must avoid the error of the French " for whom education was a purely intellectual process " and foresees the possibility that " the State will no longer shrink so timidly from the teaching of religion ". We endorse his suggestion that education should take more advantage of the facilities of modern transport. The same motor-coaches that bring adults to the city could take children to the country to pursue their studies under natural conditions. This reform should be considered by the " brain trust " on post-war conditions. Lord Elton admits that our universities have ceased to be *enclaves* of privilege. Both universities and public schools, he suggests, must admit a large proportion of students supported by the State or the local education authorities.

New Social Order.

A POWERFUL plea for " action now " in the case of education is made by the manifesto of the Workers' Educational Association. It supports the Minister of Labour's plea that " every citizen should be directing his mind, not to tiding over an immediate difficulty, but to beginning the building of new foundations now ". It contends that, so far from starting to build new foundations, the Board of Education and some of the local education authorities cannot even claim to be tiding over present difficulties very well—difficulties with regard to school attendance, shelter accommodation, school meals, nursery schools, and so on. Another very important point rightly urged by the W.E.A., and expounded with force and clarity by Lady Simon in her pamphlet, is the danger of postponement by the government of the raising of the school-leaving age. The provision of day continuation classes must not be regarded as a possible substitute for this overdue reform. The slightest reflection shows that, if the leaving age remains at 14, the mere provision of continuation classes would mean the impossibility of " secondary education for all ", and the perpetuation of the present inequality of opportunity between the classes.

The W.E.A. : " Action Now."

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THE Master of Balliol, in welcoming the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters to Oxford in his capacity of Pro Vice-Chancellor of the University, took occasion to comment on certain factors in the system of State scholarships which, he said, greatly disturbed him. The process of gaining State scholarships put a frightful strain on certain lads. He saw boy after boy coming up to the University having undergone far too much strain in the process of obtaining a scholarship, with the result that he was sometimes worn out by the time he arrived at the University. He did not know whether it was the fault of the University or of the secondary schools or of the Government. It certainly was difficult to do anything satisfactory about it without closer relations and a far better understanding between the University and secondary schools. It should be possible to devise some sort of fairly simple machinery for the examination of their problems. We hope that Dr. Lindsay's suggestion will be seriously taken up. Mr. Walmsley, in moving a vote of thanks to Dr. Lindsay, said that the I.A.A.M. had also been perturbed about the unsatisfactory way in which the State scholarship system worked.

Scholarship Boys.

THE President of the Board of Education in his address to the Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters at Oxford expressed his belief that the survey now proceeding would show that the general structure of our educational system was bearing the stress and strain remarkably well. He expected to learn that in most neutral areas school attendance was normal; that in reception areas the number of children not attending school was a very small percentage of the whole, though some were in half-time attendance and some schools were crowded; and that in evacuable areas most of the children left behind were or shortly would be in full time attendance at school. School Certificate reform, including divorcement from Matriculation, was being considered. Mr. Ramsbotham said that, though the adoption of a minimum leaving age of 16 "may not be immediately practicable", it "must even now be envisaged as inevitable", and went on to say that "*pari passu* with the raising of the age to 15 when the war is over, we should restore the day continuation school programme on the lines of the Fisher Act for the years from 15 to 18". We heartily welcome these statements. Mr. Ramsbotham added that "now is the time to lay our plans for great and far-reaching reforms in secondary or, as I prefer to call it, post-primary education, covering the years 11 to 18". As we said in our last number, we propose later in the year to publish articles dealing with the whole problem of post-war education. We hope that our suggestion for a Royal Commission on education will receive serious attention.

The President at Oxford.

MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL has delivered his views on education in an article in *The Sunday Dispatch*. He considers that the public schools should revert to their original purpose of providing education for poor scholars. Caution is needed in such generalizations. A. F. Leach points out that Winchester was founded for poor and needy scholars but not for poor children of the working classes, who in the fourteenth century were serfs, *ascripti glebae*, passing, on the sale of an estate, to the purchaser. Their educational emancipation came later. Eton was modelled on Winchester. As to Harrow, the Prime Minister's own school, John Lyon, the founder, wrote that the master was to "take pains with all indifferently, as well as of the Parish as Foreigners, as well of poor as of rich". The experiment failed: boarders bullied day boys. With legal sanction, a special school was established for local boys. The Victorian schools, including Bradfield, Cheltenham, Clifton, Marlborough, Rossall, an important element in our public school system, were not established primarily for poor scholars. The Prime Minister's protest was presumably against the use of pious endowments to perpetuate class distinctions.

The Prime Minister.

THE new Air Training Corps, with the King at its head, is democratic in one sense of that overworked word, comprising universities, public and secondary schools, and local units. At the universities, potential officers will be given a six months' course of specialized education between leaving school and beginning Service training. These young men will join the University Air Squadrons. Selected candidates will be attested for the R.A.F. and all expenses will be paid except such personal expenses as laundry. The basis of selection will be not a competitive examination, but nominations by headmasters, together with high physical standards. The first course will start on April 15th. Mr. J. F. Wolfenden, Headmaster of Uppingham, has been appointed Director of Pre-entry Training. The work of the Air Training Corps should be co-ordinated with that of the junior division of the Officers' Training Corps. For many years we have urged a higher age limit for entry to the Junior O.T.C. There must be no undesirable competition between the two bodies. The scheme is designed to attract boys to the most perilous and most indispensable of the front line forces, as aircraft pilots and crews. The O.T.C's. were limited to certain public schools and deliberately set out to train officers. The A.T.C. scheme enables an air-training corps to be founded in any secondary school in the country, and boys in the district from outside the school may be invited to join.

Air Training Corps.

RECENTLY the Fabian Society instituted an inquiry into Army conditions. The results of a questionary sent out are embodied in the winter issue of *The Fabian Quarterly*. Replies indicate that opportunities for education are sadly deficient. Doubt is expressed as to the value of some of the educational facilities provided—the men simply don't want them. The replies show the need for an adequate educational organization within the Army, which can cover all units

Education and Promotion in the Army.

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and all branches. As for promotion, the view taken is that there is no equality of opportunity. It is still generally true that to become an officer you must have had a public school and/or university education, be a 'gentleman', and have the 'right' outlook. "The army is after all a mirror of the differences in wealth, educational opportunity, and the like, in the society it serves; and it tends, on the whole, to lag behind in the introduction and application of reforms designed to lay the bases of real democracy." On the other hand, Lieut.-Col. Bingham, in his notorious letter to *The Times* with the heading 'Man Management', stated that "our new armies are being officered by classes of society who are new to the job . . . and they have very largely fallen down on it in their capacity as army officers." He went on to say that "these new young officers have been reared in an atmosphere in which the State spoon-feeds everybody from cradle to grave, and no one feels any responsibility for his fellow-men . . . a sad reflection on our education system". We can perhaps afford to ignore Col. Bingham's criticism of the products of our State schools, but his naïve assumption that what he calls man-management is a prerogative of the aristocracy suggests that there may be some truth in the contention of the Fabian Society that promotion in the army is influenced more by social considerations than by capacity for leadership.

The Camp Schools.

ONE of the few truly productive items of expenditure just before the war was the £1,200,000 allocated for school camps. The Minister of Health said as much when moving a supplementary estimate of £86,000 in Parliament last month. He revealed that 31 camps had been completed, of which 28 were let out to local education authorities, and said the results of the experiment were "wholly good". The children in them are healthier and happier than in their home towns, and they have benefited enormously from that close contact with nature which should be the birthright of every child. Moreover, they are safer from the devilry of Nazi airmen. Readers of *The Journal* will recall that we have long and insistently advocated the provision of camp schools, and that our main criticism of the scheme was that it was absurdly small, providing only for 7,000 instead of for 600,000 children. We also pointed out that the success of the schools would depend largely on the imagination and initiative shown by the teachers in them, some of whom have been able to make admirable local surveys as well as to train the children to grow their own food and to sell savoys at the Covent Garden market price of 17s. 6d. a 100!

Compulsion Must Come.

EVACUATION of London's remaining school children cannot be much longer delayed, for the hardest time of winter is to come. The L.C.C. have decided that the 80,000 school children remaining in London must be compelled either to attend school or to be evacuated to safer areas. Whatever the difficulties of carrying on education in the safer areas to which so many schools have been evacuated, these are nothing compared with the problems of safeguarding and educating pupils who have remained in the metropolis. They are losing valuable time at a most impressionable period, and public opinion would be behind the L.C.C. and the Government if drastic steps were taken and the capital declared to be a semi-military area in which children should no longer be permitted to stay. Dover Town Council and Education Committee have come to a similar decision, and we note they are asking the Board to use compulsion. We welcome the belated decision of the Board to enforce evacuation of children who are proved to be suffering in health. We wish that the Government would act with greater promptitude, firmness, and decision, instead of allowing themselves to be pushed on step by step to the position they should have occupied from the first.

Oxford and Paris.

HARVARD and Yale have sent greetings and encouragement to Oxford and Cambridge. It was fitting that Oxford in its turn should send New Year greetings to the University of Paris, *alma mater* of our universities. The Vice-Chancellor, Professor George Gordon, broadcasting the message in French, expressed his gratitude for its "illustrious and beneficent influence" continuing for eight centuries, and his conviction that its historic force "*n'est pas près d'être domptée ni sérieusement detournée de son chemin. . . .*" Paris, which has worthily maintained the international tradition of University education, and has welcomed students from all nations to pursue their studies in amity, now finds itself the victim of a nation that suppresses free research for truth and glories in a brutal creed. Educational news from France is scanty. It is reported that Latin is no longer to be taught in girls' schools! We hope that similar restrictions will not be imposed on the universities.

Cambridge University.

ON its literary side, Cambridge is famous for the publication of comprehensive works such as those on English History and Literature. The war has not deterred Dr. Venn in compiling the continuation of *Alumni Cantabrigiensis* for the period 1752 to 1900. When completed the register will comprise six volumes of which the first, for the letters A, B, and part of C, has been published. The Cambridge volume of the Oxford and Cambridge Year Book, published in 1904, was restricted to living men graduates—there were no women graduates in those days. Its editor, A. W. Holland, estimated that he had obtained the required information in 90 per cent of the 30,000 entries. Dr. Venn is faced with a more formidable task. Necessarily his records are severely rationed—witness the entries of Lord Balfour and Lord Baldwin in the present volume. In 1904 the only distinction recorded for Lord Baldwin, the present Chancellor of the University, was "J.P. for Worcestershire"! A statistical analysis showing the annual output of *alumni* and the contribution of Cambridge to the Church, teaching, law, and other professions would be useful and interesting. The University honours itself by showing pride in the achievements of its graduates.

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Bristol University.

TO the growing list of academic buildings damaged by air raids, the Great Hall of Bristol University, with its carved timbering and stained glass, has been added. For many years, until the chartering of Reading, Bristol enjoyed the distinction of being the youngest English university, its charter dating from 1909. The new buildings, the gift of the brothers Wills, whose father, H. O. Wills, was the first Chancellor, were opened by King George V in 1925. Great sympathy will be felt with the University and the architect of the new buildings, G. H. Oatley. The Gothic tower contains the Great Bell weighing nearly 10 tons and producing a remarkable note. Inscribed on the bell is a quotation from the Vulgate praying for *honor et virtus et fortitudo*. These qualities, especially the last, are needed under present conditions and will not be withheld, we are assured, from Bristol University. King's College, London, has been the academic guest of the University during the war.

The Raising of the School Age.

NO one is likely to accuse *The Times Educational Supplement* of being an opponent of educational progress. When in these columns we criticized what seemed to us its " retrograde policy ", the phrase clearly had reference only to one point. This was the unwillingness of that journal to support the raising of the school age on the grounds that " no two children are alike ", and that the general raising of the school age " makes no allowance for variation in physique and mentality ". It has been the stock argument of those who oppose the general extension of educational opportunity that schooling is useful only to children with a tendency towards book-learning, and that the rest had better be pushed out into the world as soon as possible. These were the principles upon which Mr. Tony Weller acted with regard to the education of his son Sam. " I took a good deal o' pain with his eddication, Sir, let him run in the streets when he was wery young and shift for hisself, which is the only way to make a boy sharp, Sir." The reply of educationists to this sort of argument is that it is the business of schools to take note of and to provide for the individual differences of children, and that all children should have the opportunity of receiving that form of education from which they are best capable of profiting. We do not suggest that *The Times Educational Supplement* has any real sympathy with such sentiments as Mr. Weller's, but we feel that its attitude in regard to the raising of the school age and the arguments adduced in support of that attitude are unworthy of a progressive educational journal with whose views we are generally in agreement.

English and Set Books.

IN our July number we invited our contemporary *English*, instead of continuing the controversy on set books, to unite with *The Journal* in an effort to lessen the evil effects of the domination of our secondary schools by external examination. *English* in its current number says that it has from the first insisted " that, for good or evil, our secondary school work is dominated by external examination ", and that it would be prepared to join with *The Journal* in a crusade to lessen the evil effects of such domination. Unfortunately, *English* goes on to say that " it would be difficult to cooperate unless our ally agrees not to seek to abolish set books or criticize those who uphold them until something better and workable has been found to take their place, and is also prepared to admit that a general paper in English literature for school certificate pupils, though alluring in theory, is a proved farce and failure in practice ". Our offer was made in all sincerity. What would *English* have thought if we had coupled our offer with the condition that our contemporary must first agree to abandon its advocacy of set books? If an inquiry is to be of any use, both sides must be ready to consider fully and frankly the advantages and disadvantages of the present system, together with those of any possible alternative that may be proposed. It would be reasonable that, while such an inquiry was proceeding, controversy should temporarily be suspended, but the stipulation that, before *English* can cooperate, *The Journal* must withdraw its support of the recommendation of the Consultative Committee that " the study of specified books in English literature should no longer be prescribed in the school certificate examination ", and admit that *English* has been right in opposing this recommendation, would reduce the inquiry to a farce. We are reminded of the Queen of Hearts in *Alice in Wonderland*, " Sentence first, verdict afterwards ".

War Damage Bill.

SECTION 29 of the War Damage Bill raises a point of some importance for those engaged in education. While nearly all other properties are subject to contribution at the full rate and are entitled to compensation, this Section provides that properties held for charitable purposes for the advancement of education, science, or research, shall contribute at one-third only of the full rate, and that the War Damage Commission (appointed by the Treasury) shall be the sole arbiter of what sums shall be paid as compensation when the property is so badly damaged as to be beyond repair, and also, when the property is capable of repair, whether the cost of repair shall be paid at all, in whole, or in part, and any payment is made subject to any conditions that the Commission may think fit to impose. While there is no doubt that the Commission will use these powers with good will and discretion, it should be realized that private charities for education, science, and research may, if their buildings are damaged by enemy action, find themselves absolutely dependent on that good will for the continuance of their activities, and, unless their own finances are sufficient to enable them to disregard the Commission, may find that the payment of compensation is subject to such conditions as will bring them under direct Government control in future. Such charities should most carefully consider their probable position, and take care that any amendments that they may require should be made to the Bill in time—and that time is very short.

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CHANGING PERSPECTIVES IN CLASSICAL EDUCATION

By Professor B. FARRINGTON, University College, Swansea

IN the last two or three generations our greatly extended knowledge of history and of pre-history has exercised a transforming influence on the mental life of educated men. In particular it has contributed, along with advances in other departments of knowledge, to the creation of that sharpened sense of history which is one of the marked characteristics of our age. The natural sciences had independently taught us to regard the most permanent things in our material universe, such as rocks and animal species, as being the result of processes, and as being themselves processes rather than fixed things. Now something similar has happened to our spiritual universe. Our heritage of civilization, with all its institutions and ideals, has moved out of the sphere of the eternal and entered the stream of time. The spirit of history has forced an entry, and where history enters follow movement and change. To understand a thing is no longer to grasp its unchanging essence, but to know its origin, its progress, and, if need be, its decay.

Let us consider, for instance, religious dogma, the extreme type of the static. It has had perforce to bow to the spirit of the age. Dogma now is not to be understood apart from the history of dogma, nor the history of dogma apart from the general intellectual development of mankind. What was before presented as a body of eternal truths becomes, in the hands of a master of the historical method, a thing of perpetual change and growth. Metaphysics, that semi-secularized form of theology, whose domain is the eternal and the absolute, is more and more studied in its historical context, and the historical context is broadened to include not merely the succession of those whom fashion has admitted to the rank of philosopher, but the wider life of society. And, though it may lose something of its mystery, metaphysics becomes more interesting as well as more intelligible when studied as a product of its time and place. Again, as thought has acquired a history, so too has the medium in which thought is expressed. Language, once regarded as a part of Creation and almost as old as time, a gift given once for all in full perfection to man and by the mere fact of its bestowal constituting him a rational animal, —language now appears as a thing which developed from the humblest beginnings in intimate connexion with the slow growth of human society. For the logician the essence of speech may be its rational element, the proposition, the objective statement in the indicative mood. For the historian language begins with the subjective side, with expressions of emotion and desire, cries, calls, directions, and commands.

Analogous to this is the change which has overtaken our conception of classical civilization as a whole. No longer is it the timeless image of perfection, the eternal standard by which past, present, and future may be judged. Instead it has become one stage in a journey which turns out to have been longer than we thought. And our most serious effort must now be directed, not primarily to admiration of it nor to imitation, but to just appraisal of it as part of a continuous process. For time is real, change is real. The world of yesterday is not the world of to-day. And it is as necessary to know wherein the ancients differed from us as wherein they resemble us. To accept their art, their poetry, their philosophy, their politics, their science, as fully valid for us is to live in a world of illusion. It dulls the sense of history, dulls our apprehension of our own present. But, on the other hand, for one alive to the world he lives in there can be nothing so educative as the effort to arrive at the understanding of a great past event, a great personality, a great work of art, in the fullest and most intimate association with the historical context to which it belongs. This is our task. This is the true goal of scholarship, the only one worthy of the spiritual height our modern civilization has put within our reach. Thus only can we organically link the present with the study of the past, and draw from that study the lesson that it can offer us to-day.

If one seeks to determine the time when the changed attitude to the ancient world became an obligation on all teachers who wish to move with their times, the second decade of the twentieth century might be tentatively suggested as the date. It was in 1916 that Breasted's *Ancient Times* first appeared, a pioneer text-book in that, out of mature knowledge and mature judgment, the writer sought to bestow on the Greeks and the Romans no more space than was " proportioned in accordance with modern knowledge of the ancient world ". The book did a great service to history in general, but perhaps its greatest service was, indirectly, to the classics. It is a disservice to any subject to exaggerate, or to distort in any way, its claim on the attention of the rising generation. Breasted's book, in popularizing the knowledge of the achievement of the non-classical peoples of antiquity, imposed new obligations on the classical teacher. The importance of the lesson can easily be overlooked. In order to appreciate it, it is necessary to recall some of the out-of-date assumptions on which a classical education was based a generation ago. The new fashion in history inaugurated by Breasted and others may already have obscured them from the young.

Twenty-five years ago, in what might be called pre-Breasted days, there was still borne in upon the student, from the books he read and the lectures he listened to, the conviction that one who had mastered Greek and Latin, and, it should be added, Hebrew, had in his hands not only a thread that would guide him back to the beginnings of the written record, but also a key to the best that had been thought and said upon all problems of fundamental human import for this world and the next. The full duration of man's experiment in civilization was not known, and the conception of man's intellectual heritage was static and unhistorical. The belief then prevailed that the world was literally young when the spirit first prompted prophet and poet to utter their wisdom in Hebrew and in Greek. And, if the utterance was superlatively good, that was because language was then fresh from the mint and conveyed ideas with a truth and a force beyond the capacity of the debased coinage of modern speech. Both cultures, the Hebrew and the Greek, were mysterious in origin. Neither was derived from any past. And, though the Jews were credited with giving us our religion, and the Greeks and Romans with teaching us the arts of secular life, the difference between the Classical and the Hebrew traditions was not so great as this distinction might seem to imply. For the Greeks and Romans had missions like the Jews, the Greeks to reveal to us the laws of thought, the Romans the art of government, the civil law. These ideas might not often be explicitly stated, but they were almost everywhere implied, and their effect was to envelop the ancient world in a sort of silvery mist through which the sun of history tried in vain to peer.

It is true, of course, that there was information enough in the learned world a hundred years ago to disturb this picture. A hundred years ago some men began to have a scientific conception of the nature of language. More than a hundred years ago the first great historian of modern democracy, de Tocqueville, protested that, faced with the American scene, he found himself in presence of a phenomenon so novel that the stock of political ideas he had derived from antiquity could no longer avail him. More than a hundred years ago Hegel had declared that no ancient philosophy could satisfy a modern mind. " It is impossible ", he wrote, " that there should exist at the present day a Platonist, an Aristotelian, a Stoic, or an

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Epicurean." And, despite some modern experiments, the dictum may still be taken as true. But these were but premonitory symptoms of the awakening of the historical sense. A more palpable shock had to be administered before there could be the beginnings of a general acceptance of the view that a reinterpretation of our classical inheritance in a more strictly historical spirit was required.

This shock was administered by the spade of the archaeologist, and by the decipherment of the hieroglyphic and cuneiform scripts. Brute facts were brought to light in great numbers which shattered the old time-scheme, and not only immensely extended the pageant of history but imparted to it a more discernible movement and direction. When behind Athens and Jerusalem there came into view the millennial perspectives of the civilizations of Egypt and Babylon, a replotting of the course of human history became inevitable. Michelet, in the middle of the last century, had tried, with his *Bible of Humanity*, to fling the doors open to traditions and influences other than those of Palestine, Greece, and Rome. But what he had attempted to do, by a copious admixture of intuition and sentiment with the insufficient information then available, was now done securely, scientifically, and in detail, on the basis of irrefragable evidence. Stones that had long been dumb began to speak, and there was no gainsaying them. No less an authority than Hammurabi himself insisted that we should revise our opinion of the originality of the Tables of the Law given to Moses on Sinai. The uneasy boast of the author of the *Epinomis* that whatever the Greeks had borrowed from the barbarians they had improved found its explanation in the recovered knowledge of the arts and crafts of Egypt, the astronomy and mathematics of Babylon. A new problem was squarely posed. It no longer sufficed to study the Greek and Hebrew legacy for their intrinsic worth, but to study them historically, to deduce them. Compilations like the *Cambridge Ancient History* or Hastings' *Dictionary of the Bible* are the response to the new challenge.

But perhaps of even greater significance than the extension of our knowledge of the written record was the revelation of the slow development of human society throughout the period of pre-history. The classical student used to begin his study of human society with the founding of cities by a Theseus or a Romulus, a mysterious act which appeared to depend on the inspiration of some great man. Then the story was taken back some three millennia and located on the banks of the Nile and the Euphrates. But archaeology has now taught us something better than to seek the origin of our history in the founding of cities however ancient. For this beginning has been substituted a story, destitute indeed of proper names but both reliable and dramatic, which takes us back many centuries beyond the literary tradition and gives us a history of man's social progress based on the material evidence of his increasing mastery over nature. From it we learn how the food-gatherer became a hunter, the hunter a shepherd, the shepherd a farmer. We learn how man began to spin and weave, to make bricks and pottery, to brew and bake, to cipher and to write, until the advent of city life seems only the last, and hardly the most significant, of a long succession of social transformations. And in his acquirement of these various arts, and in his solution of the social problems they never failed to raise, we can trace with confidence the steps by which man became, what Aristotle said he was by nature, a political animal. Incidentally also we learn a more just appraisal of the written culture of man, seeing now under what conditions it arises, how comparatively late a comer it is, and what enormous intellectual strides man had made before writing was invented.

So far we have been considering how the origins of classical civilization were given a background. Let us turn now for a moment to the decline of the ancient world, for the story of this period has also been rewritten. It sorted well with the theory of the miraculous origin and the divine perfection of classical civilization to imagine that it would have gone on for ever if it had not been destroyed from without. This view still lingers and too often finds expression. Those barbarians who rushed in and overthrew the fabric of civilization which the Roman legions had defended for so many centuries performed a function not useless to the old view of history. They saved ancient civilization from a thorough *post mortem*. But this could not be for ever delayed, and it may be accepted as one of the most instructive achievements of modern historical research that it has done something to lay bare the internal canker that ate the heart out of the ancient world. Only thus is a just estimate possible of early Christian literature and the new spirit that informed the Christian world. Only thus can we discover the essential continuity of the Middle Ages with the civilization of Greece and Rome. In this way the end as well as the beginning of classical civilization has been merged in the general stream of history.

Now this, it may be said, is all very fine and large, but what has it got to do with the praetor's edict? Has it any bearing on the teaching of the classics in our day? To this query I make bold to reply in the affirmative and to offer two or three suggestions.

In the first place, the longer perspective given us by the knowledge of pre-history should teach us to see the whole literary tradition, which as teachers of the classics is our main concern, in a new light. Man made enormous strides in civilization before he learned to write at all. When he did begin to write it seems obvious that the whole character of his writing was conditioned by the stage of culture he had reached, and that it could never at any period represent more than a trifling advance upon it. Yet in course of time literature has come to be studied in itself as a thing detached from society, finding its origin exclusively in the intuitions of individual men, whose minds, like Aeolian harps, are tuned to respond to the breath of inspiration which comes from who knows where and bloweth where it listeth. Thus literature lost all roots in society, and by literature is intended here all the written record of man's intellectual life. It may be accounted one of the greatest victories of modern thought that the method of historical interpretation has at last begun to be applied to it. Yet how often, in our own discipline, is it not neglected! Who has not heard the political opinions of an antique slave-owner applied with confidence to the solution of the problems of modern democracy? Who has not had to listen while some well-intentioned champion of the classics has deduced from a fragment of an ancient philosopher proof that the Greeks had anticipated this or that discovery of modern science?

This unfortunate tendency suggests a second lesson that teachers of the classics might derive from the historical approach. There is a real pitfall for the student in the fact that so much of the vocabulary of modern life has been taken over from Latin and Greek. The inference is only too easy that because the Greeks or Romans had the word, they had also the modern idea or institution or knowledge it now connotes. The teacher must put the student perpetually on his guard against this danger.

Finally, to conclude with a positive recommendation, everything in Greek from the alphabet to Aristotle (and *mutatis mutandis* the same applies to Latin) should be taught in such a way as to arouse and instruct the historical sense. To the schoolboy the alphabet should not be offered as a mere historical datum. He should be made to understand it as the answer to a problem, and a hint should be given both of the debt of the Greeks to their neighbours in this matter and of their own originality. To the honours student at the university the philosophy of Aristotle should pe presented in its historical setting and development. Jaeger's study is available to show how instructive and interesting this approach can be. Poetry is as amenable to this treatment as philosophy. Not only does the development of Greek poetry as a whole, from epic through lyric to drama, cry out for integration with the social development of the time, but the work of individual poets, as Prof. George

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Thomson is busy demonstrating with Aeschylus, is illuminated by the same approach. The same applies to science as to poetry. The general character of Greek science is inexplicable except in the light of their social organization and the institution of slavery.

But it is not necessary to multiply examples further. They will suggest themselves in abundance to all. It remains to add that the classics will not offer us less, but infinitely more, when we learn to ask of them what, in our present circumstances, they are able to give. At the Renaissance men still needed from them the positive information they could offer. Men could still learn from them medicine, engineering, astronomy, mathematics, logic, rhetoric, poetry, everything, even the art of love, as the ancients understood it. Now they can no longer be our text-books. But they reserve for us, with our more developed historical sense, a still more precious lesson. For about three thousand years of the comparatively brief span of human civilization they are our indispensable guides to the indispensable knowledge of the path that man has trod.

SHAME OF CULTURE

By C. E. M. JOAD, Head of the Department of Philosophy and Psychology at Birkbeck College, London

BEFORE venturing into the public schools *mêlée* which the Editor's controversial genius has contrived to get going in the middle of a war, I had better begin by making a clean breast of my disqualifications.

My own knowledge of public schools has been gathered only as an inmate and is, therefore, thirty years out of date. The school at which it was obtained was, to put it mildly, old-fashioned, and happened during my four years as a boy there to be passing through what was generally (though retrospectively) admitted to have been one of the less impressive phases of its history. We are, of course, frequently told that public schools are different now, even that " they have changed beyond recognition ". Possibly, possibly not. If I believed that they had, this article would have remained unwritten, but I comfort myself against the suspicion that I may be producing an irrelevant anachronism by reflecting that Mr. S. P. B. Mais, who was a master some twenty-five or thirty years ago, has recently returned to his public school as a war-time substitute and found it substantially unchanged. He couldn't stand his public school thirty years ago, and he cannot stand it now, and the reasons why he cannot stand it—they have been given by him in some detail— are the same as they were thirty years ago. I am bound to add that such haphazard experiences as have come my way during the last twenty years—I have occasionally been privileged to lecture at schools, I once gave away the prizes, have spent week-ends with housemasters, and so on—tend to bear out Mr. Mais's contention. I have been appalled to find with what rapidity and insistence the old familiar atmosphere seeped into my spiritual bones. Several times I have caught myself in the act of trying to call the masters " Sir ". . . .

I must admit, too, that, with the passing of the years, my views on public schools have changed and mellowed, so that I no longer regard them as an almost unmitigated evil. There are three reasons for the change. *First*, general: I have come reluctantly to the conclusion that the human mind is not naturally disposed to that kind of activity which we call intellectual; that it has no innate delight in the acquisition of knowledge or the memorizing of facts. Nobody, if I may put it so, learns the multiplication table for its own sweet self. Since in adult life knowledge has to be acquired, facts memorized, intellectual activity endured, the sooner the habit of these distasteful things is formed, the better. It is important, then, that work should not be made too easy or interesting, that learning should not be entirely without tears. It is the mistake, as I now see, of the modern school to try to teach without tears by encouraging boys to learn for the sake of learning; it is their defect that they have made work too interesting. It is the strength of the public schools that they have so valiantly failed to make these concessions to the weakness of the intellectual flesh.

Secondly—a particular case of the foregoing generalization—I now appreciate the value of the classics; it lies, it seems to me, at once in their difficulty and their uselessness. I do not mean merely that by concentrating the young and vigorous mind on literature of inferior value, they prevent it from spoiling itself for first-rate stuff by coming to it too easily. I mean also that they keep the mind void of useful knowledge until a very late stage and, therefore, because void, readily able to assimilate such items of useful knowledge as it may later come to need. In other words, they keep the intellectual appetite fresh and unsated. The mind of the boy who has been trained in the classics has not been warped by specialization along any particular line. Specialization narrows the mind. What is desirable is that the mind should be trained and polished without being inclined in a particular direction and narrowed by reason of the inclination. Such training and polishing are effected in a pre-eminent degree by the other characteristic of the classics to which I have alluded, their extreme difficulty. Latin and Greek are so difficult that only a tithe of those who set foot upon the stony paths of the Latin grammar are ever in at the death of the dreadful Juvenal, so difficult, that in comparison with them all other studies, with the exception of philosophy, are child's play. The effect of the classics upon a mind which has seen the classics through to the end is to enable it to pick up at will whatever else in the way of knowledge it may happen to require. There are machines which make not commodities, but machines for making commodities; there are tools which are used not to fashion things, but to fashion tools to fashion things. A classical education is like the machines which work, as it were, at second-hand, giving to the mind not useful information, but the ability to acquire useful information when needed, and to get rid of it again when the need is over. To put the point in another way, a training in the classics postpones intellectual maturity until the latest possible moment. Now it is a good general rule that the longer the period of gestation, the higher the value of the product gestated; the longer the time taken to come to maturity, the higher the level which the mature being attains. A civilized man may be partially defined as one whose mind has not been warped by concentration along any single line. The classics put off concentration till the latest possible stage; in some of us they put it off altogether.

These remarks on the classics are relevant to my theme, not merely because the classics are taught at public schools, but because (*a*) it is only at a public school that the necessary discipline can be relied upon to compel boys to master something which is at once so difficult and so boring as the Latin and Greek grammars; (*b*) it is only at a public school that there are to be found the sons of parents who are rich enough to be able to afford for their children the lack of any knowledge which can be of the slightest practical value to them until they have reached early manhood; (*c*) it is only at a public school that there are to be found sons of parents snobbish enough to desire to acquire through their children the social prestige of useless accomplishments. Classics in the child is like long finger-nails on the lady, or a top-hat on the man, a sign that their owner, or rather, in the case of the child and the lady, the economic owner of their owner, is sufficiently well off to be able to afford to

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develop and to sustain, albeit vicariously, accomplishments or appurtenances which are at best practically useless and at worst practically disabling.

This last consideration brings me to the *third* reason for the modification of my primitive hostile attitude. Intercourse with the world has made me realize the immense social utility of the public schools. Even if the worst comes to the worst, the public school man never starves. If one is found trying to do so, there is a most terrific fuss, and the announcement " Public School Man Found Destitute " brings shoals of letters to the papers and to the magistrate from people who tumble over one another with offers of loans, gifts, or support. Moreover, his relatives, unable to tolerate the scandal, hasten to set him on his feet again. As Captain Grimes remarks in Evelyn Waugh's *Decline and Fall* : " Some one always turns up and says, ' I can't see a public school man down and out. Let me put you on your feet again.' I should think I have been put on my feet more often than any living man." These things do not happen to non-public school men. The public school, therefore, is a practical insurance against starvation. Perhaps this is what Raymond Asquith meant when he wrote to John Buchan that " the English public-school system is the only one that fits a man for life and ruins him for eternity ".

Why, having regard to these three admirable grounds for praise of the public schools, is my *rôle* in this controversy that of critic rather than of advocate ? A convenient text for my criticism is afforded by a remark in Sir Frank Fletcher's original article in the September number of *The Journal of Education*. " A school ", he says, " is better or worse in proportion as it has a community life and offers a liberal education." Waiving for a moment the question of community life, what account are we to give of this offer of a " liberal education " ? And, first, what does a " liberal education " mean ? It is impossible in a short article to answer the question, but, as one ponders it, certain well-known phrases come inevitably to mind. " To love the highest when one sees it " ; " To know what great men have thought and said memorably about life " ; " The adventure of the soul among masterpieces " ; " The living for a time close to great minds " ; and so on. I accept these phrases. Some things, I believe, really *are* better ; some things truer, some ways of life more civilized than others. It should be the business of a liberal education to induce in those who have been privileged to enjoy it, the ability to discern and appreciate what is good in literature and art, a care for truth, an interest in the things of the mind and the spirit, and a respect for the virtues of the civilized man, reasonableness, tolerance, open-mindedness, and sensitiveness.

Does the public school induce these characteristics in its products ? In my mind as I put this question there are forming two pictures ; first, one of myself during the four years of my public-school career. I was an eager and industrious boy, good at my work, teachable and intelligent. I was keen on literature, a voracious reader, early in the sixth, a winner of scholarships. Were these things accounted to my credit at my school ? They were not. Instead of being respected, those who, like myself, showed signs of profiting by a liberal education, of becoming in fact liberally educated, were contemned. " Worms " we were called. A " worm " was simply a boy who was better at work than at games. " Worms " were alternately bullied and cajoled ; cajoled, when the gods of the playing fields wanted their proses done or their unseens translated ; bullied, when there was no immediate need of their services. Things were not so bad with me as with other " worms ", because God mercifully endowed me with a good eye at games ; but, even so, I can remember being badly beaten up because I was fond of making speeches at the school debating society ; not because they were bad speeches, but because it was considered " uppish " in a " worm " to make speeches at all. Who or what was I that I should put myself forward and concern myself with politics ? Who or what, indeed, was any public school boy that he should take an interest in things outside the school ? (In parenthesis, are not the compulsory preoccupation with school life and its ritual and the consequent feeling of deprivation of contact with and knowledge of the world outside, the source of the sense of grievance against the public schools which pervade the writings of Auden, Isherwood, Day Lewis and Connolly ?)

What made matters worse in my case was that I was a Liberal. There must have been well over a hundred boys in our school debating society, but of these three only were Liberals. Labour in 1906–10 had not yet been heard of at my public school.

Open-mindedness, tolerance, an interest in men and affairs, an acquaintance with the movements that were stirring in the contemporary world, and the social knowledge and enthusiasm which would enable one to take part in those movements—for these things one had to wait until one went to the University. And then what a blossoming ! What talk, what excited controversy, what delight in mental adventure, in the discovery of Shaw and Wells, of Bennett and Chesterton and Galsworthy and the other leading authors of the time of whom—I find this difficult to believe, yet in retrospect I feel sure that it is true—I had never heard until I went to Oxford. It is impossible to measure the degree of intellectual intoxication induced by such a change. It was exactly as if one had taken a plant which had been exposed to a winter of frost and east wind, and transplanted it to a sunny corner with a south-west aspect. It was the change from Sparta to Pericles' Athens. . . .

And the other picture ? It is of a young Frenchman whom I happened to meet a year or so before the war in London, whither he had come to complete his studies in English literature. He was staying, poor man, in a small London hotel, and he had been extensively lunched and dined by persons belonging to the English middle class. As a result, he was a very bewildered man. He could not make head or tail of his experiences, and he could not relate them to his expectations. The English he had believed to be on a level of civilization equivalent to, though different from, that of the French. This belief had been chiefly founded on an acquaintance with the works of English writers. For years he had been steeped in the great English classics. He was a devotee of Shakespeare ; he had dipped into the English philosophers, Locke and Hume and Mill ; he was widely read in the nineteenth century English novelists ; and he had not unnaturally believed that these authors whom he so loved and admired—Pope and Dryden, Dickens and Scott, Matthew Arnold and Walter Pater, even Shaw and Wells—were, broadly speaking, representative of the great mass of their countrymen. Ordinary Englishmen, he conceded, could not be expected to be as talented as these great writers, but they would, he thought, at least be recognizably of the same species ; they would at least subscribe to their interests and share their tastes. Culture, in fact, in England as in France, would be diffused in some degree through the nation as a whole.

Now this belief, founded on his acquaintance with the works of great Englishmen, my friend had found to be a total delusion. English culture was not, it seemed, diffused through every class ; on the contrary, it was the perquisite of a few totally unrepresentative and disliked intellectuals. The ordinary Englishman, it appeared, was as incapable of reading as of writing great literature ; literature, in fact, was the pursuit of a few cliques and coteries and of isolated individuals. As with literature, so with philosophy and science, with whatever, indeed, belonged to the world of ideas and evoked the activity of the mind. Ordinary English society, it seemed, was devoid of intellectual interests. It did not discuss books ; it did not exchange ideas ; it had no knowledge and no desire for knowledge outside the special departments in which its members happened to function, and it was without intellectual

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curiosity. Its conversation turned dully and monosyllabically upon sport, plays, films, and personal relations. Rooted in the particular, it shied violently at any attempt to introduce it to the general. Shivering in the cold draughts of the abstract, its participants fled with all possible speed to the warm shelter of the known and comforting concrete.

And the point of these anecdotes? That the average product of the public school, so far from exhibiting the characteristic graces of a liberal education, is by any civilized standard a Philistine and a barbarian. He may have an admirable character, he may be loyal and brave; he may be just and a good governor of natives, but emphatically he does not love the highest when he sees it; he is more likely to heave a brick at it. The average public school man goes out into the world imbued by a shame of culture; a taste for poetry excites his derision; in his eyes a preference for Bach as compared with jazz stamps its possessor as odd; let a man be interested in science or philosophy and he is mistrusted as 'brainy'; let him even be fond of good literature, and he is condemned as highbrow. In other words, to have an interest in the things of the mind and the spirit, to have taste enough to discern the good in literature and the beautiful in art, and to have a lively appetite for those processes of reason, controversy, and discussion whereby truth may be revealed, is to be an epitome of all the social sins.

It may be that we are such an incorrigibly stupid race that nothing that the most liberal teaching can do can constrain the average Englishman to a modicum of civilized tastes and interests; it may be so, I say, yet I do not think that it is, for, as a university teacher, I have found a richer deposit of civilized taste and intellectual interest in those of my students who do not come from public schools, than in those who do. This, then, is the gravamen of the charge against the public schools that, taking them by and large, they do not turn out men with rich and open minds, with cultivated tastes or with intellectual interests; they do not, in fact, turn out civilized men but Philistines.

One final observation. It may be objected that the foregoing has been couched in terms of a highfalutin' remoteness; that boys must make their living in a rough and tumble world, and that the public school should equip them to to do so. Something of the practical there must be in the education of even the most civilized adult. I agree, and respond with a question. When I left my public school what, pray, did I know of the processes of farming and gardening, of the contents of my body and the way in which it works, of the monetary system and the mechanism of the stock exchange, or the way in which my country is governed? Nothing at all. Yet these are pre-eminent examples of the kinds of knowledge which I have found useful in life and which I have been compelled laboriously to pick up as and when I could, because nobody had thought it worth while to teach me these things at my public school.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND DEMOCRACY

By Professor HAROLD J. LASKI, London School of Economics

I DO not know the public schools of England from within; and I have, therefore, no title to pronounce upon the adequacy or inadequacy of the functions they perform for their pupils. My approach to the problem they present must therefore be from a wholly different angle.

I cannot believe it to be healthy for the nation to have two systems of education in being, the difference between which is largely, if not wholly, determined by the income of the parents of those who come under such system. I believe, particularly, that this system is a mistaken one when it emphasizes the difference between the class of position in the community to which the pupils of each are to be called. For, with individual exceptions only, the mass of the pupils in the public schools are, without special attention to their fitness, trained for positions of command, and those in the council schools, for positions of obedience, in our society. At the very beginning of life, this is to say, our system stereotypes, undesirably, as I think, the inequalities of our social system. This is not only a denial of reasonable equality of opportunity, and, thereby, a wastage and frustration of a good deal of latent ability: it also means that those who, in later life, are to decide upon the educational future of the nation, have the limits of the practicable set for them by men who have, by the whole environment of their experience, been led to conceive these more narrowly than is necessary.

The rigidities the system introduces into our social structure are serious. The Foreign Office and the Diplomatic Service, the administrative class in Whitehall, the barrister's side of the legal profession, the bench of Bishops even, are all very largely recruited from the pupils of the public schools. No doubt something of this is due to the fact that their parents can afford to give them the training appropriate to these functions. But one of the results is the development of a fairly uniform type of mind among them, and, I think, a consequential failure of imagination when problems arise that call for an imaginative insight beyond the reach of that uniformity.

It is, I think, also true that the division breeds a 'clannishness' which is not only undesirable, but is also profoundly resented. It tends to lay more emphasis on a certain ease of manner and personality than on intelligence. I do not deny the importance of the first quality; but I think it often leads, in the making of appointments, for example, to the neglect of the second, and to a frustration it would not be easy to justify.

I believe, further, that the fact that the well-to-do classes of this country have their own schools is an important factor in slowing down the general educational progress of the country. I am convinced, for example, that many of the schools on the condemned list would not have remained there had the children of the well-to-do had to use them. I am convinced, also, that most of the problems of war-time education would have been solved by now had there been a single system of education in this country.

I take the first point. Though the quality of secondary education has improved beyond all recognition in the last generation, as is shown by the entrance scholarship lists at the universities, there are still many sides of it which need improvement. And, where above all that improvement is called for, the kind of influence and pressure which could carry it through is wanting, just because the most powerful section of the population has little interest in carrying it through, since their own children are already provided for. I think this unfortunate. For, though it is no doubt true that the extraordinarily gifted child will triumph over most adversities of environment, that is not true of many thousands of children of good ability who, granted those improvements, would find many avenues opened to them which are now closed.

My second point seems to me of the first importance at the present time. The war has hardly interfered with the education of the well-to-do. By evacuation overseas, and by removal from dangerous areas, they have triumphed over most of the difficulties it presents. That is not the case with the children of the poor. Many thousands are receiving no education at all; many thousands more are receiving a cheap substitute for education on the shift system. If those parents whose boys are at Eton or Winchester had found that this was the fate of their sons, Parliament would have driven the Board of Education to some imaginative

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ingenuity about the problem. As it is, the Board, since the children of the privileged are provided for, takes refuge behind arguments for which no satisfactory evidence is ever adduced. To the plea that war-time residential schools should be started for the workers' children they reply either that there is no suitable accommodation or that the workers do not like to send their children away to school. The answer to the first argument is that the public schools found suitable accommodation without undue difficulty, and that not a week passes without advertisements of suitable property appearing in the Press; and the answer to the second is that it cannot be seriously maintained in war-time when something near two million parents have voluntarily evacuated their children. The real truth is, that the children of the well-to-do being provided for, the Board's mind does not reach so far as similar provision for the children of the unprivileged.

It is, I think, an evil thing in any society to emphasize distinctions between classes in educational terms. Its result is differences of training and outlook which mean absence of understanding between them. That absence comes out in many spheres of our social life. It comes out, notably, in the administrative sphere; only a Whitehall which did not really know the lives of the workers would have imposed the Means Test upon them. It comes out in the courts of law; the abyss between the workers and any but a small group of outstanding magistrates is remarkable. I think, too, that our educational system bears a serious responsibility for the undemocratic character of our army organization, in war as well as in peace. The public school system enables Colonel Blimp, as a young man, to go to Sandhurst; but the army has never done anything to secure that an able lad from a council or a technical school shall be able to do so even though they have the qualities for which the modern army calls. This is, of course, true of the Royal Air Force, and, though in a less degree, of the Navy.

It is one of the essential conditions of social unity that there shall not be misunderstanding between classes. Our educational system seems to me to maximize the chance of that misunderstanding. From the earliest years it separates the privileged from the unprivileged; from the earliest years, also, it prevents the experience of the one class interpenetrating the experience of the other; and from the earliest years, also, in effect, if not in principle, it assumes that the best positions in society shall be overwhelmingly open to one class but not to the other. And, since the class which commands has over so long a period become accustomed to the exercise of its authority, it is able to mould those from outside who are able to enter it so much into its own image that, for the most part, their anxiety is rather to imitate the class of their adoption than to contribute the new experience they might share. In this context, the significance of the famous controversy over the 'Holmes Circular' ought not to be forgotten.

I am not, it must be noted, saying anything in derogation of the public school 'type'—if public school type there be; I suspect that a system which produces Mr. Winston Churchill and Mr. Jawarnahal Nehru leaves elbow-room for the variations of personality to express themselves. My point is the very different one that education for the masses is bound to be a second-best, if education for the most powerful element in society is largely unrelated to, and independent of, education for the masses. I cannot think it wise, either, to train for leadership predominantly that very small section of society which is selected for that opportunity mainly by reason of parental circumstance. Since the ruling ideas of a society are, as Marx said, the ideas of its ruling class, this situation seems to me to narrow dangerously the range of experience from which those ideas will be drawn. At a period like our own, when openness to new ideas is a quality hardly less than urgent to national survival, a system which inherently serves to abridge it seems to me hard to defend.

If, as seems possible, the situation of the public schools after the war is such as to make many of them seek for public funds to keep them going, I hope that advantage will be taken of that position to abolish, at least in its present crude form, the existing division. I should deprecate any attempt to bring all schools directly under the local education authority and the Board, as I believe that this would seriously interfere with desirable experiment. But I should like to see it made a condition for grant that all public schools be compelled to establish fifty per cent of free places, and that the remaining places be reserved for those who have passed an entrance examination of the same standard as the scholarship boys. My own experience of this system in operation is limited to my own years at the Manchester Grammar School under the great headmastership of Mr. J. L. Paton. Looking back on it after nearly thirty years, he seems to me to have made it an outstanding success. No doubt, especially in its early years, the system will call for headmasters with something at least of the genius he displayed so signally. But I believe, from what I have seen of the teacher's profession, that the ability is there, if we have the will to take advantage of it.

My central point, therefore, is the simple one that if this country proposes, in any effective sense, to be a democracy, it must extend the implications of democracy to the educational field. Those implications are incompatible with a system which divides its schools on no other principle than that some of its citizens are rich and some of them poor; they are particularly incompatible with the consequence actual, though not, I agree, implied, that the governing positions in society shall be reserved for the sons of the rich and denied to the sons of the poor. I know (*pace* Dean Inge) no serious argument which substantiates the view that a higher proportion of ability naturally exists in the one group rather than the other; that the reservation, therefore, is merely a reflection of nature. Our system so massively denies any approach even to equality of opportunity that defence of the existing reservation is, in the circumstances, simply a defence of a vested interest comparable, at its worst, to the ugliest features of the ancient régime in France or, from another angle, of the old promotion by purchase in the British army. For, if you say, as we say in effect, that certain careers shall be almost closed, save to those who have had a special type of training, and if the access to that training is mainly a matter of the economic position of the parents of those who are to receive it, you are, in fact, making them, in all but form, careers closed to any but a small class of the population. A nation which does this is not only wasting its talent; it is also leaving large numbers with a profound sense of frustration. A society in which that sense is at all widespread will search in vain for the terms of social peace at the moment when it has most need of them.

The March number of *The Journal of Education* will include:

An article by Professor F. CLARKE, Director of University of London Institute of Education, summing up the controversy on the Future of the Public Schools.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION: THE BASIS OF AGREEMENT. By the Right Rev. C. M. BLAGDEN, D.D., Bishop of Peterborough.

TEACHING ON THE SOIL AS A FOUNDATION FOR THE STUDY OF HUMAN GEOGRAPHY. By MARY K. HESLOP, Lecturer in Geography, Kenton Lodge Training College, Newcastle-on-Tyne.

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CLASS BIAS IN EDUCATION

By ANEURIN BEVAN, M.P.

IT is impossible for me to approach the question of the future of the public schools without bias. My social and political views inevitably predispose me to take a definite attitude, and this is, on the whole, hostile to the public school system. Some people would no doubt say at once that I should discuss the subject no further because this bias unfits me to do so. The obvious reply is that, if all those in whom the future of the public schools arouse strong emotions refrain from saying anything about it, then complete silence would ensue, for I have not been able to meet any one who can even flirt with the question without a certain heightening of colour and a freer use of adjectives.

There is every reason why this should be so. Our attitude to the public school is in many respects the measure of our attitude towards every social problem of any importance. The sort of school we want depends upon the sort of society we believe in. Educational institutions follow the pattern of society; and, indeed, why not? Is it not one of the main purposes of education to give us that knowledge, those values and codes of conduct with which to adapt ourselves to the social setting in which we are to spend the rest of our lives? In the past the public school has been insular because those taught there expected to lead insular lives. If they did not mix with a cross-section of society in the school it was because they did not expect nor want to lead any other than an exclusive class-protected life. The hierarchy of education has followed and attempted to sanctify the hierarchy of the social system, and, if its most eloquent and far-sighted defenders want to modify it now, it is because they realize the social system itself is undergoing modification. Many of them want the public school to change as little as possible just as they want as little change as possible in society.

It will be seen that there is little chance of common ground being found between those who think as I do and those who desire to preserve the public schools. I want big social changes. I hope for them and work for them. Consequently I expect to see equally fundamental changes in the methods and institutions of education. They want frugal social reforms, and so, quite logically, they expect microscopic alterations in the structure of education. Indeed, it is the changes which are occurring in the distribution of the national income which are responsible for the crisis in the public schools. The public schools are living on a dwindling social foundation, and, instead of accepting this fact and making ready to die decently and without too much fuss, they are looking around desperately for something to shore them up, some of them with a nostalgic belief that the crisis is only temporary and eventually the erosion will cease. I do not wonder at the public schools trying to preserve themselves. All institutions fight to persist long after their vital functions have ended. Often it is good they should do so, for they ought not to end until their vital content has discharged itself into a new mould. Therefore, in such cases, a wise government eases their death, and builds up the inheriting institution *pari passu* with the decline of the old one. In this way rupture is avoided and the essential continuities of culture safeguarded.

If I could be persuaded that the public schools of Britain had any further contribution to make to either educational theory or practice, I should be prepared to support a proposal which would enable them to continue, albeit in a modified form. But it seems to me that all that is good in them has long since been emptied into the broad streams of education, and that what we are asked to prolong is a physical structure only, completely void of any historical sanction. Surely this is revealed by the reasons given to justify the State providing grant-aided places in the schools on a sufficient scale to enable them to live. The proposal, put another way, is for public money to be used to give advantages (*sic*) to a limited number of the sons of the poor in order to enable the children of the rich to continue in the enjoyment of their class privileges. It is clear there would be the greatest resistance to grant-aided places in the public schools if it were not for the fact that this seems the only way to attract revenue from the public exchequer. Even if I thought the public school system a good one, I should resent the exceptional children of the poor being used as decoys to attract public money to support a private advantage. How much more do I resent it when it would be a sacrifice of the children of the poor to use them for this purpose.

It was suggested by some writers in *The Journal* that the public school would benefit by a controlled infiltration of children from the elementary schools. The juxtaposition of the two types of children, it was thought, would make the public school a more faithful "cross-section" of the community. Undoubtedly it would. But why blur, bemuse, and bewilder the whole educational system in order to bring about this result? It could be accomplished more easily and tidily by all the children of the well-to-do going to the elementary and secondary schools. Indeed, the school population would then be a photographic reproduction of the whole community, for the children of the rich would be a small minority. If the apologists of the public schools want to benefit the children of the poor, there cannot be a better way than to mix all the children together. Just think how the influential rich would rave about the shocking lavatory accommodation, the huge classes, and meagre equipment of so many of our State schools. The education estimates in the House of Commons, which now hardly ever interest Conservatives unless they are engaged in an economy campaign, would become quite exciting affairs. Conservatives would take as much interest in education as they now take in the income tax. Malnutrition, resulting in unpleasant and infectious diseases, would receive more attention if daily contact exposed the children of the rich to danger.

The benevolence of generous-spirited men is no substitute for the constant leverage which this situation would exert upon the general standards of education and the physical arrangements of the state system. It is surely not too much to say that the backwardness of State education in Great Britain is to some extent due to the fact that the education of the well-to-do flows through separate channels.

The advocates of state-aided places in the public schools do so in order to ensure the preservation of special advantages for a special class of the community. I want the whole school population to pass through the State system so that the presence there of the children of a special class may result in benefits to all.

If you want to democratize the children of the public schools as distinct from the quasi-democratization of an institution that is the best way to do it. Any other way is to use a principle that commands universal respect in order to promote its opposite.

Another argument against an attempt to wed the public school and the State system is the confusion which would result. The existing condition of affairs is sufficiently incoherent. It is not necessary to have a confusion of machinery to achieve diversification of opportunity and variety of educational stimuli. If we attach the public school to the State system, the next demand will be to incorporate the private preparatory school. The result would be chaos. The bewildered parent could be provided with no guide through such a morass except the interested advice of competing institutions. A generation must pass before he can decide whether he has made the right decision. It is necessary that the educational plans of the State be

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articulated through a simple and easily discernible structure, with outlines familiar to every citizen, so that the movement of the child can be planned beforehand. By this I do not mean the individual child, as I am not envisaging a robot educational machine, but rather the child unit. This need not mean that experimentation be rendered impossible. On the contrary I would encourage it, but it would have to be 'educational experiment in the proper sense of the term and not attempts to import into education the insularities of caste.

There are many countries where a simple educational structure has not been found inconsistent with quite exciting educational experiments. Indeed, the simpler the main structure the clearer are its defects, and the more clearly do the points at which modification should occur stand out. Once the beneficial reform is arrived at, it can be imported into the whole system at once and its advantages universalized. There is nothing wrong in the standardization of a principle of proved merit, provided that it is continuously exposed to the challenge of ingenious and experimental activity. There are many accomplished educationists who regard the public schools as stagnant pools of conservative pedagogy.

It remains for me to deal with an argument for the public schools which is the very marrow of their case. It is claimed that the public school has a " soul ", a " community sense ", an " individuality ", and that from it the product emerges, if not exactly with a nimbus, at least with a penumbra of infinite social value. It is not easy to obtain the evidence on which this claim rests, because it appears to be one of those self-evidences whose strength appeals only to those possessing it—or possessed of it. We do know that the name of a great public school is a passport of great material value. We do know that many parents send their children there, not so much because the education is better, as because it may give them an advantage over rivals in later life. This is because those who have the power to confer favour in industry, trade, and politics, are themselves the products of public schools and like the smell of the same herd. Or it may be that they are snobs and like the association. If this is the " soul ", the " community sense ", I admit its value. In a society full of class distinctions class badges are useful. But then as I said at the outset of this article, I do not envisage a society of that kind and so the argument does not appeal to me.

I can find no evidence of a wider social or educational value in this " soul ". What I have found is that most of those possessing it remain, as to one part of their minds, in a condition of petrified adolescence. The habits, ideas, and manners they acquired in their school days are informed by an affective tone which gives them the automatic reflexes of Pavlov's dogs. The ideas so implanted become sacerdotal. They remain permanently unadaptable to any environment save the one in which these ideas were assimilated. So they carry their ' school ' around with them for the rest of their lives like a leg iron or a painful squint. Those who like Waugh or Sitwell become conscious of this and react against it are in even worse case. The awareness of an ineradicable inhibition poisons the rest of their lives which they spend in literary exhibitionism.

I have never hated the sons and daughters of our ruling classes enough to want to inflict this outrage upon them. Consequently I would close the doors of the public schools and allow the children of the rich to enter the portals of the more wholesome if less romanticized State-aided schools.

THE FUTURE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

By A. S. NEILL, Summerhill School, Author of *A Dominie's Log*, &c.

PERHAPS it is impertinent that I, who never saw the inside of a public school, should dare to write about public schools. I have, however, a slight acquaintance with some of their products. I have had a few lads from well-known public schools, and they live vividly in my memory as boys whose primary idea of freedom was to go unwashed for weeks, but then it may be that the ones I got had been classed as undesirables and thrown out of the machine.

I find it difficult to write about the future of the public schools for the simple reason that I believe most strongly that they ought to have no future at all. That they are socially class schools is enough to condemn them, but that fault can and will be remedied when the privileged class is abolished during or after the war. Our military history suggests that the schools turn out excellent young subalterns and pilots—and brainless generals. Council schools may turn out fine young lieutenants and even majors, but our class rule sees to it that they cannot turn out the soldiers and politicians who lose our battles politically and militarily. Of course, most Labour leaders come from council schools, but they do not become real political powers until they are seen to be absolutely safe in retaining the *status quo* of class rule.

Time will cure the class curse, but can we wait for time to cure the psychological madness of the public school system ? You take thousands of boys, deprive them of all female contact or influence or love, shut them up in barracks, and naturally turn out a crowd of narrow-minded, soul-warped men who are fit for little else than being cabinet ministers. You hedge them in with petty, asinine rules about unbuttoned waistcoats ; you teach them the things that are ' done '. You starve them of natural sex and naturally encourage the development of homosexuality—and I don't mean to say that the public schools are hotbeds of sodomy ; I mean that the chances of a public school boy's having more than his share of unconscious homosexuality are many. Teachers who believe in a segregated education are totally lacking in knowledge of the psychology of childhood and youth.

We are told we are fighting the present war for freedom. We should be told that we are educating for freedom, but how much do the public schools know of true freedom ? From what I have heard of it the prefect system seems an excellent one for producing potential English equivalents of the S.S. men. It gives power to boys who have no real idea of what power should be. Obviously any power there is in a school should be vested in the whole community, young and old. The prefect system has nothing to do with real self-government ; it is reminiscent of the army with its N.C.O. class to carry out on the privates the orders from above. I should think that it gives the neurotic and sadistic youth chances that he ought never to have. If one prefect in one school can introduce fear into a small boy's life, the whole system is to be condemned, yes, and that statement goes for masters, too.

The games tradition is hackneyed, and to-day I presume that it is only the mentally defective who support the compulsory watching of games. I have heard it said that games are an excellent way of letting off sex energy, but I have also heard that rugby is a dangerous game for small boys. I hasten to say that I have nothing against games. My boys and girls play them keenly and well. What I object to is the compulsory game : what I hate is a tradition that makes a member of the first eleven more important than a boy who can act or paint well. It is interesting to speculate what became of the beefy heroes who sat side by side with Shelley. I do not recollect reading their names. Ah, but the games expert is a he-man. That is the curse of

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the whole system; it does produce he-men in goodly proportion. But man is bisexual: every man has a woman in him, every woman a man. The he-man represses his essential femininity, and that is why he is so deadly dull. I have the feeling that every good public school boy must be unconsciously ashamed of his mother. A few have told me how scared they were on parents' visiting days that their mothers would kiss them in public. Any he-man system strives to exaggerate the father element and curb the mother element.

I cannot criticize the teaching and subjects side of a public school. All I can say is that it is just as futile as the elementary and secondary brands, for all believe fatuously that school subjects are education. I understand that imbeciles still talk of compulsory Greek, but they are not more insane than their secondary school fellows who believe in compulsory mathematics. Education when compulsory is like compulsory attendance at church in the army—senseless and worthless.

Education should concern itself primarily with character. And here the pukka public school man will cry: "Here I agree heartily, for our system aims at forming the best character". That's the rub: that is one of the disasters of the public school, that it does form character. For to form a child's character is a crime of great magnitude. Character can develop only in freedom from fear and authority, and all the silly adjuncts of authority—dignity, respect, discipline. Luckily the formation of character from without does not always succeed—witness my public school boys who wouldn't wash. Their aversion to soap was the natural reaction to an unnatural school belief in soap and cleanliness. Possibly the public school imagines that bodily cleanliness symbolizes the other cleanness of morals it wants so much to foster. I have also seen with great satisfaction how quickly public school boys lose their manners when given freedom to be their true selves. They come to my school with insincere voices and manners: they call me "Sir" (that most degrading of titles for any man); they open doors for me, and I hate their insincerity, and rejoice when the day comes when they call me a silly ass to my face and plop themselves in my favourite chair (from which, being fairly sincere myself, I push them out). True manners are possible only under complete sincerity, and no boy who has respected a head, or served a prefect, or worshipped a rugby wing three-quarter can possibly be sincere. His manners must be the superficial manners that designate gentlemen—gentlemen in a world that so badly and sadly wants men.

However, what we all say about the public schools is of little moment. They will die with the system that produced them, and Mr. Hitler has done much to hasten the end of that system. What the coming Socialist State of Britain will do with them I do not know, but I fear that our workers have been so imbued with the snobbery of class, that they might turn Eton and Harrow into schools for training young commissars. But, again, they may have the sense to turn them into free colonies of free children.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS?

By W. B. CURRY, M.A., B.Sc., Headmaster, Dartington Hall

WHAT do I *want* to happen to the public schools? What do I *expect* to happen to them? Ever since the Editor invited me to take part in this discussion these two questions have been buzzing around in my mind. They are really quite separate and distinct questions, but since, with our fatal tendency to rationalization, prophecy and desire are always inextricably intermingled, it is very hard to keep them apart.

The events of the last twenty years have made me very sceptical about social prophecy. No one in 1920 had the least idea of what the world in 1940 would be like. What would old Clemenceau have thought if he had been told that twenty-one years after the signature of the Treaty of Versailles, France would be again invaded by Germany, that the French army would retreat in disorder, and Paris be occupied after a few weeks? It is clear that we don't *know* what is going to happen, but that "If hopes were dupes, fears may be liars". All we can do is to guess, and then consider whether the guess is to our liking.

My own guess is that the public schools will suffer a sharp decline in numbers and prestige, and I shall not be surprised if they practically disappear. The severity of the decline will depend upon the duration, severity and cost of the war, and upon the social changes that it brings with it. But I feel sure that there will be *some* decline.

To begin with, there are the financial factors already discussed in these columns, and affecting all boarding schools, and not merely those classed as public schools. It seems clear that one result of war finance will be to diminish very substantially the aggregate sum available for the payment of school fees. In the class that supports the boarding schools, the increase of income tax in a single family in the last two years may already exceed the school fees of one, or even two, children. This process will not be reversed for some time. Perhaps, owing to the pressure for new social legislation, it will never be reversed.

It follows that the present boarding school population could be maintained only if parents were prepared for much greater sacrifices than in the past. There seems little reason to expect this, since the motives leading parents to choose these schools seem likely to get weaker rather than stronger. There are several reasons for this. Good secondary day schools are both more numerous and more efficient than in the days when most of the big boarding schools were founded. The snobbery which causes many parents to choose boarding schools is on the decline, and one may reasonably hope that it will decline further. Thirdly, the point of view which inspires public schools will, I think, be increasingly out of touch with the kind of society which we may reasonably expect and for which we must certainly hope. I shall amplify this third point presently.

Assuming, however, that the reasoning so far is valid, we may *expect* a decline in the number and prestige of the public schools. Unlike most of your contributors this is a prospect that I welcome and I should like now to turn to this aspect of the question. The public schools are, as Sir Frank Fletcher admits in his article: "the product of a society already divided by social barriers". Now it may be true, as Sir Frank Fletcher asserts: "that the public school system did not create the social divisions of English society; nor would these disappear if the privileged schools ceased to exist". But that surely is to argue a theorem from its converse: the question is not whether the public schools create the social divisions, nor whether the abolition of the social divisions would automatically result from the disappearance of the public schools. The question is: would a society which had determined to get rid of these social divisions tolerate a system of education which tends to perpetuate them? A group of schools existing mainly for the sons of the well-to-do, and promoting by their very existence a special kind of class consciousness in their products, is incompatible with a society that aims at any genuine democracy. Sir Frank Fletcher seems to think that "by bringing together in the same school boys of very different social standing they have helped to break down the barrier of birth". And adds that, "If somehow they can be thrown open to the sons of parents who cannot afford to pay, they will have broken down the barrier of wealth". But surely this is a very optimistic view. The public schools at present create definite barriers which would not exist if the whole population went to the same schools. Any one who doubts this need only take the trouble to inquire among

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products of secondary schools who happen to have been interviewed for commissions in one of the older regiments. It is surely naïve to suppose that these barriers can in any serious sense be broken down by admitting to the schools for the privileged an inevitably insignificant fraction of the unprivileged. Let us suppose that, under some such system as that advocated by some of the contributors, a miner's son from an elementary school is admitted to Eton or Harrow. By virtue of being a miner's son it is almost certain that he will never be quite at home in, nor accepted by, the bulk of the public school caste. By virtue of having been to a public school, he will be cut off from the other miners' sons who have not. In the attempt to give him the best of both worlds you may only succeed in giving him the worst. There may be an argument for privilege based upon birth and wealth, and there may therefore be an argument for privileged schools, but, if we decide that privilege is not justified, it is merely trifling with the problem to suppose that we can undo its effects by admitting to the public schools a sprinkling of elementary school products. The existing degree of privilege in England is incompatible with genuine democracy, and, if we aim at a genuinely democratic society after this war, we must be prepared for a very rapid reduction in the amount of privilege. As things stand at present, the principal public schools are one of the main bulwarks of class privilege in English society, and I think that their continued existence is incompatible with the abolition of this privilege.

It is contended, however, by many of your contributors that the public school tradition is so valuable that it must at all costs be retained in some form or other, and that democracy merely demands that we should spread it over the whole population. Here again I find myself unable to agree. The world which I hope to see, and for which I intend to work, is a co-operative, cosmopolitan commonwealth, with some effective machinery of international government based upon democratic, federal principles. I do not believe that the public schools have anything very useful to contribute towards the creation or preservation of that kind of world. The harsh and autocratic discipline, with the threat of corporal punishment still in the background when it is not in the foreground, is a poor preparation for a peaceful and non-aggressive society. It may produce Empire builders. It does not produce democrats or cosmopolitans. Democracy is based upon reason and persuasion, upon the denial of the utility of arbitrary authority, and upon creating in the mind of every citizen the feeling that he is part of the government, and not merely one of the governed. To this end schools need a large measure of the self-government which the progressive schools have done their best to develop, but which is certainly not part of the public school tradition. It is sometimes maintained that prefects are a form of self-government, but this is a pure delusion. Prefects are analogous to gauleiters appointed by the Führer, and have nothing whatever to do with democracy.

Then there is the team spirit that we are always being asked to admire. The team spirit, as it exists in an orchestra, is an admirable thing, and produces the sort of co-operation needed in a peaceful and non-competitive society. It is true that the public schools have increasingly introduced this type of co-operation, but it is not the type that they have principally fostered, nor the type which is commonly associated with the idea of team spirit. What is meant by team spirit is the co-operation which occurs between the members of combative, aggressive herds. You cooperate with your fellows, in short, when there is another herd to be defeated. From the point of view of psychological pattern this is the same thing as nationalism, which it must therefore help to promote. Nationalism is the chief evil which at present afflicts the world, and the alternative to the destruction of mankind is the destruction of nationalism as a political force. Nationalism is useful only when it is non-political and rather humorous—the sort of local patriotism that Yorkshiremen have, for example. So strong, however, has been the influence of the public schools in promoting a belief in the efficacy of group competition that day schools all over the country have developed artificial ' houses ', having no residential or other type of reality, and existing solely in order that they should compete with each other and promote the competitive herd instinct among the children. These things—herd instinct, group combativeness, prefects, a strict authoritarian type of discipline, the absence of any genuine self-government—are the principal characteristics of what the public school system seems to mean in practice. It seems to me that they all need abating in the modern world, and that, for the reasons I have suggested, if they remain at their present strength, they will be an obstacle rather than a help in the creation of the sort of world to which men's minds are increasingly turning.

AN OPEN LETTER TO SIR CYRIL NORWOOD

By T. C. WORSLEY, Author of *Barbarians and Philistines*

MOST of the public school headmasters who contribute to *The Journal*, I notice, admit and deplore the class basis of their schools, and are ready for a change. They now all assume this to be the major fault and seem to imagine that if they can find some way of getting over the difficulty, the public schools ought to go on pretty well as they are. It is just this view that my book wished to challenge and I suggested that, unless the public schools were so radically altered that they pretty well ceased to be public schools in the present sense, their continuation would be a national disaster.

It is common to hear public schoolmasters saying that it is the last two years of a boy's life at a public school which is the most valuable (responsibility, &c.). This is the first heresy which I want to challenge. There should be no need to describe to you what community life at the average public school is like (though headmasters have a quite amazing capacity for deceiving themselves in these matters). It is run off the batteries of organized competition ; around and through the rivalries of form work and team work stalk the public school virtues of loyalty, discipline, fair play. The life is public, tough, ritualistic. In fact, the best analogy to public school life, with its quaint or obscene or brutal customs, is the life of the savage tribe. Now for this kind of existence we know that there is a certain psychological justification—*for adolescents*. Somewhere between 11 and 15 the average boy likes being in a gang, is naturally cruel, homosexual, intensely competitive, and inventive of secret ritual. Whether or not it is a good thing to encourage these traits as a preparation for a civilized society I do not feel competent to decide ; personally I am inclined to think there is something to be said for it. But, at least in the ordinary course of things, a boy begins to grow out of these traits by 16 or 17. At a public school, however, or any boarding school or Borstal institution run on public school lines, that growth is deliberately retarded. The tribal life is not only continued up to 18 or 19, but worse, the older boys, the very ones who should be growing out of it, are plunged right back into the centre of it. From being members of the tribe, they become the tribal leaders. At 17 or 18 they are set to perpetuating and enforcing the very existence from which they ought now to be emerging. The school prefect, especially if he is also an athlete, becomes at 18 a sort of super-fourteen-and-a-half. It will take him four or five years to recover from that, unless as too often happens (the most casual observation of your own ex-pupils could convince you of this) he never recovers at all.

That is my first objection to the public school system

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and I suggested that adolescents and senior boys should be educated separately, the latter going to local colleges which would be day schools, co-educational and run on something more like a cross between the university and a sixth form in the best schools. You were pleased to be very high-handed about this suggestion which you described as cloud-cuckoo-town. I think I know why.

You approve, and have always approved, of the deliberate retardation of development, in the interests of a philosophy of leadership, a conception which I believe to be irrelevant to the needs of a modern democracy. That philosophy of leadership was evolved to meet the demands of a growing Empire which had to be *dominated*. It was a success; it was perfectly adapted to its purpose at the turn of the century. But history does not stand still—not even for ex-headmasters. And what was good enough for our fathers—however good it or they may have been—is not necessarily relevant to the world of their sons. The enormous crisis through which we have been living since 1914 could never have been solved by the attitude of 1890. After the last war the pace of our democratic experiment quickened, the scope of it widened. If it was to develop successfully and with the least possible violence—which is what I am interested in—two things above all had to be changed—the old contempt for useful knowledge, and the old conception of authoritarian leadership which the European tyrants were so soon to copy and the impact of which we are enduring to-day.

The contempt for useful knowledge derives from the concept of liberal education: about the value of that theory in the past I am not concerned; about its merits at this moment of history we are all very much concerned. You dismiss with a few ironic questions my contention that there is to-day a dangerous divorce between culture and life. Yet it is rather surprising that you should never have noticed this. Did it never strike you as odd, for instance, that, after an expensive liberal education, so comparatively few of your old pupils ever opened a serious book again? Or consider that Oxford where you preside, that Oxford which is the home of liberal culture, where every day during term your colleagues are giving lectures on the beauties of Greek art, on proportion, form, commodity, and sweetness; and then take a look at the New Bodleian with which this home of culture has been graced. These things—and they are symptomatic—are the fruits of liberal education *in decline*. You do not notice them, so there is no use in pointing out to you the deadening effect of the liberal treatment of 'subjects', or deploring the lack of a general scientific or technical education, or—and it may in the end be more serious—the divorce which exists between specialized technical or scientific education and 'culture', as if they were antitheses. Your reaction to the word science or scientific is that of any nineteenth-century classically educated schoolmaster, but it is ingenuous to flip the problem off as if I had just invented it. Classically educated myself, I was only using the arguments which Sir Percy Nunn and others a great deal older and wiser than myself have used.

But the public schools, as you were always so fond of saying, are less concerned with learning than with character. So we come to the question of discipline. There is a kind of elder statesman who has only to pronounce the word discipline to suppose that he has solved a major problem. That there may be different kinds of discipline, different approaches to it—that one approach may be better or worse than another, more suited to producing this kind of person or that, more appropriate to this kind of way of life or that, —doesn't enter their heads. By discipline, in fact, they simply mean absolute obedience—a quality highly prized in animals, slaves, Nazis, and public school boys. A democracy should have evolved a conception a little higher than this, and that it has failed to do so I ascribe largely to the influence of the public schools. The practice of English education provides far too little between the Nazi discipline of the public schools and the anarchic licence of the 'progressive' schools. (For whatever reason, you obscure, in your review, the fact that I rejected *both* these extremes.) At one moment I am "anarchic"; at another "my courage has failed me" because I disapprove of anarchism. My contention is that, if the experiment of democracy is to go forward, we must find the mean between the kind of slavish obedience you admire (your words are on record), and the anarchic licence of some progressives. If the public schools are to continue merely to purvey authoritarianism, then I should consider the extension of their influence over a wider section of the population to be disastrous.

So my book was not, as you seemed to suggest, another of those books which have been written for the last twenty years attacking the public schools for their handling of sex, religion, discipline, &c. On the contrary, I was at pains to point out that the public schools are extremely successful at handling these things—for their own purpose. What I doubted was whether they are successful in producing leaders for the kind of society in the defence of which this war is being fought. You yourself boasted, not so long ago, in an article in *The Spectator*, that the public schools were one of the few institutions which Hitler has learnt from and copied. That is quite true. What is surprising is that you should solemnly suppose this to be a testimonial to them. My question was, "Has the public school tradition helped to solve the problems of a developing democracy?" You answer—as you have answered for the last twenty years—with what I confess to find the cheapest kind of sneer about "democratically deciding to eat sweets in form". History may have a more serious answer. My question was "Is the public school training relevant to the needs of a modern industrial democracy?" Your answer to that is even cheaper; it is to find comfort in the fact that the "products of the old tradition are proving themselves heroic". Now you know perfectly well that no one—least of all I—questioned the courage of public school boys. But, as you have been in London during the last few months, you should not have fallen into the vulgar error of imagining that the public school classes have a monopoly of that quality.

I have left myself too little space to explain here the concrete suggestions which I made for fitting the public schools into a national system, in such a way that their virtues are applied to that age-group to which they are suitable, and their admirable buildings and equipment used for the benefit of the whole community. It was at best only a sketch, and those who want to can read it in my book and I hope improve on it. But it would not be the least good any one doing so who is not convinced by *any* of the foregoing arguments. It seems clear to me—every day makes it clearer—that the history of the last thirty years shows that there has been something disastrously wrong with our education; and the tradition of that education has been derived largely from the public schools. And, if the public schools which are now mercifully dying are to be put on their feet again, whether by grants or free-placers, that tradition will persist.

You on the other hand see the public school tradition as a rock in a dangerous whirlpool, and believe, like Marshal Pétain, that it is the desertion of the old tradition that has led us astray. There is no bridging that gulf. We are simply on different sides.

"We now know that the development of the next generation will so narrow the oceans separating us from the Old World that our customs and our actions are necessarily involved with theirs. Beyond any question, within a few years, air fleets will cross the ocean as easily as to-day they cross the closed European seas. The past generation in Pan-American matters was concerned with constructing the principles and mechanism through which this hemisphere would work together, but the next generation will be concerned with the method by which the New World can live together with the Old."—Franklin D. Roosevelt, *Speech to the Pan-American Union*, April 14, 1939.

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CORRESPONDENCE

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS—QUESTIONS THAT NEED AN ANSWER

SIR,—A few years ago there were proposals for grouping public schools. It was assumed that the market was contracting but would become stable before it had contracted much. The Spens Report proposed that most grant-aided secondary schools should be linked more firmly with other schools in the " national system of education ", while the public schools could flourish or fade without effect on the national welfare. It now appears that :

1. Rationalization would not be enough.
2. Decay of public schools would be a national disaster.

May one who used to be a master at a public school and is now head of a maintained day-school offer his comments ?

I suggest that we should mark the following statements true or false before we discuss plans :

1. The war will not alter the structure of our society.
2. There are likely to be after the war enough wealthy people to fill most of the vacancies in public schools, particularly if expenses are reduced.
3. Any surplus accommodation should be bought by the public for the use of selected boys from the masses.
4. All boarding schools are worth preserving at their own valuation.
5. Independence of the governing body is valued by all connected with the school as much as it is by the governors and (perhaps) the headmaster.
6. The educational value of a school is roughly proportional to its independence of taxes and rates.

6A. Hence, a maintained secondary school may be :

(i) Creamed by boarding schools at 13 plus.
(ii) Deprived of its sixth forms.

7. No school governor, head, assistant, boy, parent, or servant is a snob.
8. As No. 7, but putting *will be* for *is*.
9. Preparatory boarding schools are necessary.
10. The present age of entry into public schools is the best.
11. The present age of entry into day schools is the best.
12. Freedom is greatly to be desired (but what is the order of importance of the following ?) :

Freedom from

(*a*) Standardization ;
(*b*) Red tape ;
(*c*) Criticism ;
(*d*) Dependence on fees ;
(*e*) Dependence on votes of public money.

S. J. DALE.

Gillingham County School for Boys,
at Rhymney, Mon.

ARMY EDUCATION

SIR,—The references to the Central Advisory Council for Adult Education in H.M. Forces made by " A Correspondent " in his article on " Army Education " in your January issue are misleading. Whatever the apparent implications of its title, the Council is certainly not in fact composed simply of bodies which in peace time provide adult education in the technical sense under the special regulations of the Board of Education. It comprises official representatives of universities, local education authorities and all recognized voluntary bodies concerned with adult education in the widest sense, as well as observers from the three Services and the Board of Education. Its Regional Committees are similarly constituted and many of them contain representatives of organizations which carry on the more informal types of educational activity in arts and crafts, music and drama.

" A Correspondent " says that the Army has now decided to look after its educational needs off its own bat. This is true in no other sense than was contemplated when the Council was established nearly a year ago. The memorandum to which " A Correspondent " refers is presumably *Education in the War-Time Army* which, of course, is that part of the Haining Committee's Report published and widely circulated in September last. When the Officers of the Council were invited to meet the Haining Committee in April, they strongly urged that nothing could be achieved unless the Army had a strong internal educational organization and made the fullest use of the officers and other ranks who, without being specially allocated to educational duties, could make any kind of contribution to the meeting of needs so varied as those of a cross-section of the whole population. The business of the Council is specifically to supply what the Army demands, and it is precluded by the original arrangement with the Services from going in itself to stimulate and organize demand. On the other hand it has unquestionably influenced the work a great deal by the conference between Service officers and representatives of civilian educational interests at Regional Committee meetings and by the close daily co-operation between Education Officers and Regional Committee Secretaries. It has perpetually exerted pressure upon the appropriate Government departments to speed up the development of the work and to provide adequately for the widest possible range of activities.

The scheme of Correspondence Courses was initiated by the Council last summer through a sub-committee consisting of the Service and Board of Education representatives and the Secretary. A great deal of time was spent in personal interviews with the officers of the professional bodies concerned and in September the point was reached at which the essential arrangements had been made, but it was necessary to establish a Central Bureau to deal with applications, and it was decided that this should be done by co-operation between the Army and the Board of Education. The Bureau functions on behalf of all three Services.

We challenge " A Correspondent's " sweeping statement that the Central Advisory Council is dominated in its outlook and its policy making by narrow but tenacious academic traditions; and, if space permitted, we should be glad to give details in support of our contention. The Army and Council have in no sense fallen apart. On the contrary, the effectiveness of what is actually a national undertaking depends on the fullest co-operation between the two, and this co-operation is daily becoming more fruitful.

WALTER H. MOBERLY, *Chairman*,
A. D. LINDSAY, *Vice-Chairman*.
BASIL A. YEAXLEE, *Secretary*.

Central Advisory Council for Adult Education
in H.M. Forces,
Rewley House, Oxford.

SIR,—That the Army is to re-enter the educational field was welcome news for a teacher now serving with the Forces, but is the Army scheme likely to fulfil the high hopes based upon it ? Facilities for acquiring new interests will be provided in the form of talks, discussion groups, even classes in music and sketching, all in the leisure time of the troops, but the response will be small. There are so many difficulties to overcome. After a day's work, inertia sets in and ties a man to his barrack-room, unless his interest is strongly roused. Moreover the ordinary man has a strong inferiority complex where education, even of a practical kind, is concerned, and he will fight shy of attempting to sketch or debate. Anything savouring of ' school ' will not only fail to arouse interest, but is even likely to evoke hostility. It seems probable then that the new courses will

(*Continued on page 54*)

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not attract those men who need this type of training more than others. To be successful two things must be achieved. It must be proved that activities of this kind are worth while, and that they are within the grasp and capabilities of the average man. That proof can come only from inspired teaching and careful choice of syllabus interpreted in the most progressive manner. It will take time to overcome the soldier's inhibitions, and so some of the training must be compulsory and take place during parade hours. Under a good teacher, such a training will not be a bore simply because it is a duty, for the compulsion will not be that of a martinet, but the co-operative discipline of the school. Despite official denials, there is time to include half a day's education each week into the military training programme: indeed, in winter it might well take the place of "Recreational Training", since a period each day is devoted to physical training. The results of the intelligence test taken by each man on conscription could provide scientific data for grouping the men of, for example, a company into different units for instruction, the syllabus for each unit being adapted to the capabilities of the class. At first, the troops might resent having to 'go back to school', but the right man and the right material will win them over. Indeed, I have seen it happen in a compulsory course on the theory of the petrol engine, in which imagination had characterized the methodology, and models, films, and diagrams were all used in lectures. Encouraged by their interest in these weekly classes, and by the success which has attended their efforts, the men are much more likely to attend voluntary evening courses.

If the apathetic are not won over, the scheme will fail, for they are the majority. The task is a difficult one and it will never be successfully completed on a part-time basis. The officer in charge will be the keystone, and he will need to devote all his time and energy to the task of organization, framing suitable syllabuses in consultation with his instructors and supervising closely the working of the scheme. Surely the part-time officer appointed under the scheme of the Army Council will not be able to achieve complete success. It is even doubtful whether the men chosen as Education Officers will aim at anything so difficult yet so imperative as the re-education of the soldier. No doubt they will be conscientious, good organizers, and gifted with the qualities of leadership, for they are to be selected by the commanding officers of their units. But it is no criticism of the latter that they are unlikely to be so well equipped for making such a selection as the administrators of the Army Educational Corps.

I suggest that the A.E.C. should appoint an Education Officer for each unit or training centre and that under each officer should be about half a dozen sergeant instructors, as far as possible specialists in their own subjects. They might be responsible for commercial subjects, arts and crafts, music, history, economics and civics, languages, literature and drama, and mathematics and science. They could deal each day with about 150 men (say a company) divided into about seven classes, and could run additional courses in the evenings and at the week-ends. Thus the individual might receive the training which he wanted and of which he was capable; and the instructors would have sufficient free time for that thorough preparation which is an essential of success. As soldiers, we have a negative duty of defeating the enemy. As citizens, we have the positive duty of creating peace. That is not the task merely of politicians but of all individuals. Let us seize the opportunity to evoke that positive attitude in our troops, so that a new Order may be based on a Thomistic, rather than a hedonistic philosophy of life.

King's Royal Rifle Corps. P. M. BURNS.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

SIR,—I am grateful to Mr. Mallinson for his second letter. It reveals more clearly than the first the confusion which underlies his arguments, namely, that between *research* into educational problems, *exploration* of new methods of teaching (syllabuses, modes of approach, &c.), and questions concerned with the *training* of teachers. All these, of course, are related, but for purposes of discussion they should be distinguished.

As regards the first—research, properly so-called: this is an attempt to apply the accredited methods of investigation common to all social sciences (*e.g.* statistical analysis of properly selected data) to such problems of education as the construction and use of intelligence tests, the comparison of the relative efficacy of demonstrations and of individual laboratory work in science, the investigation of the naive interests of children. To obtain significant results in this field, the research worker needs a considerable technical equipment (*e.g.* knowledge of statistical methods), but he need not be a teacher at all—any more than a research physicist need be an engineer in order to solve engineering problems.

Lecturers in training colleges must, of course, be well acquainted with the results of educational research. But it is in no way *essential* that they should themselves be actively engaged in it. All the same, as Prof. Valentine has pointed out, their record in this field is a very creditable one, especially when the difficulties they face are taken into account.

To judge from his letters, however, it is not research properly so-called that Mr. Mallinson is thinking about, but rather the exploration of new methods and approaches. He believes that lecturers in education are not themselves sufficiently in touch with new ideas to be able effectively to introduce them to their students. The cure for this assumed state of affairs, he suggests, is that no lecturer should stay in his job for more than three or four years; but his argument rests on entirely unproved assumptions. My own impression is that the staffs of our training colleges are remarkably well acquainted with the best modern theory and practice; that, thanks to their numerous visits to many different schools, they know far more of what is really going on and of what can really be done than do those whose experience is necessarily limited to one particular classroom; and that, in addition, their views are usually more liberal and progressive. Too close contact with any one school tends to make people accept limitations which could easily be swept aside.

In addition to arguments about the quality of the training college product, Mr. Mallinson advances others which have to do with the "present haphazard recruitment of men and women into the profession". In what way are colleges or departments responsible for this? We do our best to select the best candidates from the comparatively limited list of applicants, and we base our judgments largely on the reports sent in by the schools. We know that, as Mr. Mallinson says, "a recognized studentship in training is often the refuge of the mediocre sixth former". How could it be otherwise? The economic inducements are less than in other professions, the social status of teachers is not very high, the opportunities for advancement or for adventure are not too attractive, the chances of performing valuable social service are diminished by the prevailing worship of examination successes and by the stifling influence of unhealthy traditions.

The remedy to this state of affairs is obvious—but it is not one which can be applied by the training colleges. Mr. Mallinson should direct his attack elsewhere.

Lastly, I cannot refrain from having a dig at Mr. Mallinson's Mozart analogy! I'm afraid departments of education can no more be organized or staffed to train budding Pestalozzis than schools of music can be organized to train young Mozarts, though even lecturers in education can usually be trusted to fan rather than to tread out sparks of genius.

J. A. LAUWERYS.

University of London Institute of Education
at University College, Nottingham.

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EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

SPAIN

AFTER the end of the Civil War, the new Spain realized that it would have to recast its educational system if totalitarianism was to survive. When King Alphonso was dethroned the Republic set up an organization to study educational methods. Under the direction of Francisco Giner de los Rios, education was planned along intellectual lines, learning was removed from that direct contact with politics and State which flourished in Germany and Italy.

Now that the Republic has been destroyed that method has been scrapped, and to-day the new Spain is painfully seeking a way which will fill the needs of a new totalitarian system.

Recently discussing the question a leading Falangist pointed out that Franco's Spain was only ' inching ' its way along the new path. " The reason is the various kinds of resistance which we must overcome in the people themselves," he explained.

First of all he insisted that republican education allowed too much freedom and imposed no serious discipline. Discipline, in the opinion of the Falangist, was foreign to the Spanish people because they had never been taught discipline in the schools. It even appears that the people are putting up passive resistance to the new methods.

" Our hope ", said the educationist, " lies in the youth. There are those among the old disbelievers who will be convinced after we have had a few years to show them what we can really do. But it must be a new generation, learning from the cradle, who will fill up the ranks to a solid mass of support for an authoritarian Spain.

" Without taking sides between the various brands of education," he said, " I believe I can explain what it is that both Liberals and Falangists have been trying to get at. It is the accumulated weight of centuries of organized ignorance in Spain, and of enforced resignation to a crushing burden of suffering life.

" The average westerner in Europe and America takes adversity as something to be resisted and overcome within the limits possible in this human state of affairs. Whereas the Spaniard has been accustomed to centuries of misrule and decadence and to a system which sought to rationalize these things as part of the normal course of life, in order to prevent revolt. Almost more than any one else in the west, therefore, the Spaniard makes an overwhelming reality out of evil. To combat it, he is given chiefly an anthropomorphic concept of Deity and an education which in the past has been clerical rather than secular.

" Therefore the Spaniard has lacked knowledge, the intuition, and the constructive energy which produce the driving force of progress in most western peoples. He will expend a fantastic amount of energy on a crusade ; and then when the results of it turn to dust in his hands because of an incapacity to consolidate, he will shrug his shoulders and call it God's will."

The Liberals were of exactly the same opinion and tried to eradicate the weakness by intellectual training ; the Falangists are using Fascist methods. A boy is taken over by the party at an early age. He passes through camps, militant organizations ; his education is part of a party system, and he is just one small unit taught to look for leadership only in the party leaders.

But the Falangists still have the Roman Catholic Church to fight. Franco is not a Falangist, the Government is only partly Falangist, and therefore the Catholic schools not only persist but actually follow a teaching line in direct contradiction to that followed by national or party education.

Distasteful as this is to the extremists they have little or no choice. The educational system of the Republic was shot to pieces. Education had to be carried on and no Nationalist would trust a Liberal teacher of the old régime to teach the young, so the Church had to be called in, and it was willing and ready to take over education until, so the Falangists hope, a new educational system is worked out and organized.

How long this dual state will continue remains to be seen. Certainly the leading Falangists do not want the children Church-taught for longer than is absolutely necessary, and when the time comes they will try to wrest the schools away from the Catholics. What the reaction of the Church will be remains to be seen. S. H. KAHN.

A MADRID correspondent of *The Times* describes the setting up of a British Institute in that city, devoting its energies chiefly to spreading a knowledge of the English language. Classes are held for Spaniards of all ages and grades of attainment, including candidates for the Spanish diplomatic service. In addition to local teachers three first-rate lecturers from Oxford and Cambridge have been secured. An infants' school has been established for children between the ages of 4 and 10. This school already has a waiting list, and is arousing keen interest among Spanish parents, who are said to admire the British system of child education. Another school, for children from 10 to 14, has been started, and is flourishing. The staff of the Madrid Institute seek to make it a centre of British life and culture, and already thousands of Spaniards and British of all classes have been entertained within the walls of the fine building which is the Institute's home. All this has been accomplished, notwithstanding the pessimistic feeling in Spain about the future of Britain after the collapse of France. For there is, says the correspondent, " a traditional and widespread sympathy for England, which no amount of foreign propaganda could destroy ".

OVERSEA JOURNALS

TRUE to its sub-title* as to its title, *The Colonial Review* carries on the important and useful work it has begun in collecting, sifting, and reproducing important passages on colonial affairs which no single person could ever succeed in collecting for himself. As colonial reconstruction will be one of the major tasks to confront us after victory, the teaching profession will naturally wish to bring itself abreast of colonial development, especially in education, so that its influence upon the future course of action may be well considered and judicious. In this Review we may skim butterfly-fashion the length and breadth of the colonial world and touch lightly upon those parts which attract our notice. The next issue is in March.

The Progress of Education devotes a whole issue (July 1940) to a discussion of literacy in India, occasioned by the publication of Sir Philip Hartog's *Some Aspects of Indian Education Past and Present*, which includes an answer to Mahatma Gandhi's challenge in 1931 that " to-day India is more illiterate than it was fifty or a hundred years ago ". Then, according to a contemporary survey, there were 100,000 schools in Bengal and Bihar alone. In 1931, illiterates in India formed 90 per cent of the total population. The discussion hinges upon the standard of accomplishment in those indigenous schools, which it is averred the British administration " destroyed " ; and upon obvious variations in the standards of literacy applied a century ago and to-day.

In this country we are not now beset by those grim alternatives—a mere smattering of instruction for the

* A Readers' Digest of Important Articles on Colonial Affairs, including special articles on Education, selected from leading British, Foreign, and Colonial periodicals.

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masses, or primary education in organized schools for a proportion of the children: that is to say, quantity or quality? Yet in India and the British Colonies this is a live issue which, under the searching light of post-war ideals, we shall have to face more resolutely than ever before.

Not only in the British Commonwealth of Nations does this problem exist. Subscribers to the funds of the National Child Labor Committee of America (419 Fourth Avenue, New York) are asked to sign the following declaration: "I believe that every child in America should be freed from exploitation and given the opportunity to go to school." Illiteracy in U.S.A., however, is a mere 4 per cent (1930). *The American Child*, published by the N.C.L.C., records improvements in child labour legislation and also convictions for violation of the existing laws, together with articles and reviews of books on the subject.

In *The Educational Review* (New Brunswick), October 1940, Dorothy Coates describes the school library in a one-room rural school:

"Our library consists of about sixty-five books. . . .

"We had no place to keep the books. A table was made by turning a box upside down on four barrels for legs, and painting it. A small bookcase was fixed up to place on top of this box table. We were able to procure an old table from one of the homes. We sawed off the legs to make this table the right height for the smaller pupils. We then made seats from orange crates covered with dyed burlap. Shelves were put up in the corner for extra books and magazines, and special displays of art, pottery, &c., which the children made. Some good pictures were added to the walls.

"To make room for the Library Corner a back seat which was not in use was moved out, and the desk was left for magazines, &c. The older boys in the school, with sometimes the girls helping, did the carpentry work.

"The Library is in use most of the day, when the children are in the Library Corner, or have the books at their seats. During the Social Studies period the pupils are encouraged to suggest questions on the unit of study. We then decide which questions can be answered and what information can be gained from the library. The pupils volunteer or are requested to look up material. They make their own notes, having had previous drill on how to summarize their reading and note the important facts. These reports are read or sometimes given orally without notes. . . .

"The children have a Free Reading Period, when they are allowed to go to the corner and read what they like. . . .

"The benefits of the much reading obtained from the library are many. Several that I have noticed are:

(1) Great improvement in essay work.

(2) Increased knowledge of the English language.

(3) The pupils use a greater variety of words with comprehension, in spite of the fact that they are not required to memorize meanings."

Do we do ten times as well as this with 650 books in our well-appointed library?

The 'count your blessings' principle is in danger of over-emphasis in these days; for the fact that the whole of the rest of one's body is in perfect condition does not make toothache any easier to bear. Yet, while we are full of our troubles in the war-time schools of England, let us look for a moment with T. Z. Koo at the war-time schools of China (*National Education*, New Zealand, October 1, 1940, quoted from *Sierra Educational News*):

"In the past three decades we have created a network of primary schools in which we were teaching annually about 16 million children, 6 to 12 years old.

"In the college field, the number of students is small for so large a country. Total college student population is about 55,000, in about 115 colleges and universities, both Government and private.

"When the war broke upon us, July 1937, it took a heavy toll of our educational institutions. In the first six

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months of the war we had lost some 60 out of a total of 115 colleges and universities. Some were totally or partially destroyed; many others were occupied as barracks by Japanese soldiers. More than half of the students suddenly found themselves deprived of the means to continue their education.

" How did China meet this crisis in education created by the war?

" To answer this question, let me explain the war slogan in China to-day. From the walls of our cities and on public billboards in ' free China ' four big Chinese words stare you in the face. They are ' Kong Tsaen Chien Kuo '; word for word they mean ' Resist Fight Build Nation '. In these concise words is revealed not only the present temper but also the traditional attitude of the Chinese people in war-time.

" Resist and fight as you must because the invader is on your soil, but go on with the work of building up the nation.

" The Government designated seven new areas in those western provinces bordering upon Burma, Tibet, and Chinese Turkestan, far from the fighting lines, as centres to restart the destroyed universities and colleges.

" It appropriated millions of dollars for this work, dollars it could ill afford to spare from the war-chest. About 35 of these 60 wrecked colleges and universities have been re-started. When I visited West China last year I saw some 20 of these ' refugee ' universities.

" For many months, tens of thousands of students and professors trekked westward to these refugee colleges. I saw on the highways of Szechuen groups of college students, carrying their own baggage, trudging up-hill and down, walking their last weary miles to the city or village where their colleges are to be re-established, some 2,000 miles from where they were before the war.

" It is roughly estimated that more than 25,000 students and professors have migrated from the east coast into West China. This is a reversal of the flow of education in my country. Its effect on the cultural development of the border provinces of West China will be a lasting one. Already a number of these refugee universities are making plans to remain permanently.

" When the students and professors reached Kunming, the Government turned over to them a large tract of land upon which they were to restart three of their universities. The land is large but it had no buildings on it.

" Nothing daunted, they set about immediately to re-create their universities. They took the two cheapest forms of building material in China, namely, mud and straw, and started their buildings. The centre of the tract is now occupied by a long low building, with mud walls and straw-thatched roofs. Half of this building is the library; the other half contains the administration offices. To the right, I saw a number of buildings of mud and straw, the class-rooms. To the left are other rows of mud houses used as sleeping quarters. These are packed with double-decker wooden bunks placed from four to six feet from each other. In other dormitories I have seen triple-deckers and in a few places even quadruple-deckers, so some of our students in these refugee universities are really sleeping on a high plane of life!

" These refugee universities even made some of their classroom furniture with mud. I have seen classrooms filled with U-shaped seats made of mud packed down hard. By placing a rough board across the top of another U-shaped structure in front of him, the student has his desk. Furniture of this kind is extremely cheap, and fairly useful until the rainy season sets in.

" Many of these universities were not able to save their library books and laboratory equipment. Many classes are being held with only one text-book available for the professor, so the text has to be mimeographed every day for the class. A professor of physics told me he has to devise from the simplest material apparatus for his demonstrations. He improvised a pendulum by shaving down a native-grown turnip and running a native-spun thread through it! He said it served his class as well as the more expensive equipment he had before.

" Not only in food, but also in clothing, many Chinese students are having a hard time. I saw, in early winter, many students still in their light summer clothing. Their winter clothing has been destroyed and they have no money to buy any. As our houses are generally not heated in the winter, I dread to think what these young people go through during the really cold weather." E. C. P.

MEETINGS OF EDUCATIONAL BODIES

THE HEADMASTERS' CONFERENCE

THE Headmasters' Conference was held at Haileybury College on December 20 and 21, under the presidency of the Rev. Spencer Leeson, of Winchester. A resolution was unanimously adopted accepting the Christian faith " as the basis and inspiration of their work ". The future of the public schools, the supply of recruits for the Services, the County Badge scheme and other questions were discussed.

THE INCORPORATED ASSOCIATION OF ASSISTANT MASTERS

THE Council meetings of the I.A.A.M. were held at Oxford for the second year in succession. The Association celebrates its jubilee this year, and in happier times more would have been made of this event. As it was, no more than passing references could be made, though the retiring chairman did pay some attention to the matter in his address. The new chairman, Mr. E. T. Heather, of Plymouth, presided, and was most successful in leading the Council easily and pleasantly to the completion of the agenda.

The effect of war conditions on education naturally received much attention. A general resolution expressing the view that adequate air-raid shelter accommodation should be provided at the expense of the Government in all schools and that these shelters should be properly equipped, heated, and lighted was carried, but the Council refused to be drawn into advocating any particular type of shelter. Other points made were that in view of the conditions in existing shelters, consideration should be given to the question of shortening the school session during the winter months; that teachers should be fully indemnified in respect of proceedings arising from injuries to pupils due to enemy action, and that in case of injury or death to themselves there should be reasonable compensation; that the Government should be urged to take energetic steps towards as complete a restoration of educational facilities as the present state of emergency will allow; and that there should be impartial use in the reception areas of billeting powers, a system of rotation among householders being established wherever possible, and houses suitable for hostels requisitioned.

The failure of a few local authorities to supplement the war service pay of masters in their employ who have joined H.M. Forces has caused considerable resentment, and a resolution was passed instructing the executive to urge the Government to make the application of the provisions of the Local Government Staffs (War Service) Act compulsory. The inadequate war bonus recently granted also came in for criticism. The six per cent increase on salaries not exceeding £260 per annum benefits only a very small percentage

(*Continued on page 60*)

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W. A. FLEMING, *Secretary to the University.*

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of members of the Association. It was therefore urged that active steps be taken towards obtaining a war bonus for all teachers at the earliest possible moment.

There was a debate on Federation, and it was argued that the completion of a scheme of federation between the N.U.T. and the A.T.T.I. made it advisable to reopen negotiations with the N.U.T. The Council, however, decided that the present time was not propitious for such a move.

The Council instructed the executive to ensure that tenure cases involving conscientious objectors should receive the same careful consideration and energetic help as is given in other tenure cases.

Other resolutions expressed the desire that an Education Enquiry Bureau should be set up; suggested that a headmaster should in the best interests of the pupils devote at least a quarter of the total number of school periods to class-teaching; and voiced the opinion that all secondary school appointments should be advertised in the press before or at the same time as any agency is notified of the vacancy.

Mr. Ramsbotham's announcement of his belief that the school-leaving age should eventually be raised to 16 was especially welcomed.

THE LING PHYSICAL ASSOCIATION

MISS COLSON, addressing the Annual General Meeting of the Ling Physical Education Association at Hamilton House, Bidborough Street, London, W.C. 1, on January 8, stated what she described as the true aims of the Directorate of Physical Recreation. These were to assist the existing authorities and voluntary organizations, to lessen their difficulties, to stimulate enthusiasm among young people and to make wider provision for the 14–20 age-group, so helping to raise the national standard of health and efficiency. She denied any idea of the formation of an organization parallel to the Hitler Youth Movement, of compulsion in any form, or of sweeping away the existing voluntary organizations, untrue aims wrongfully ascribed to the Directorate.

"The Directorate itself is concerned with Physical Recreation", said Miss Colson, "but this does not mean that there is to be any attempt to develop physical work to the exclusion of other aspects of the Youth Group programme. Far from it. In fact one will help the other." She deprecated the use of the term "physical jerks". The Directorate took a wide view of physical recreation as part of a comprehensive scheme of Health Education and there were aspects of recreation such as bicycling, walking, and outdoor and indoor sports which were as much part of the scheme as organized classes.

Miss Colson appealed to her audience of men and women gymnastic teachers for support for the work of the Directorate. There was nothing spectacular about its aims, nor did the members of the Directorate wish for any personal publicity; but, given a fair chance and support from the members of the profession, the Directorate should accomplish very useful work. She emphasized the fact that it might well be remembered that it would still be possible for the principles of the Fisher Act to be brought into force whereby Day Continuation Schools would be put into operation. Such provision would do much to solve the problem now facing the Directorate in respect of the welfare of young people.

An exceptionally interesting "Posture-Recording Apparatus" was shown at this meeting by its designer, Mr. R. E. Roper, M.A., M.Ed., the well-known authority on educational and remedial gymnastics. This apparatus is a very valuable piece of scientific research as regards physical education. One of its chief features is its absolute simplicity, the results being obtained straight away, so that both observer and model can see from the traced drawing where the defects in posture lie. There are two models, with large and small lenses respectively, and, as an aid to patients themselves and in the training of students in observation, this apparatus would be invaluable in school clinics, orthopaedic hospitals, and training schools, as well as to educational and remedial gymnasts whose primary interest lies in good posture. It aroused considerable interest among the audience.

Regret was expressed at the resignation of the President of the Ling Physical Education Association, Miss C. M. Read, of the Bedford Physical Training College, who took a prominent part in the Lingiad at Stockholm before the war. Miss Read, in her Presidential address, after reviewing the work of the Association during the year, spoke with feeling of those members and honorary members who were still in enemy-occupied countries. To them the Association sent a special message of sympathy.

Miss Read is succeeded as President by Miss Grant Clark, Senior Woman Organizer of Physical Education, London County Council.

BRONWEN LLOYD-WILLIAMS.

TOPICS AND EVENTS

BADEN-POWELL

B.-P. DIED on January 8 in his home in Kenya at the age of 83. He became a popular public figure owing to his long and successful defence of Mafeking during the Boer War, but his title to enduring fame rests chiefly upon his creation of the boy scout movement, with its counterpart of the girl guides. Under his inspired leadership this movement became not merely an amusement to occupy the superfluous energies of boys and girls, but a serious educational movement which has profoundly influenced our educational ideals and methods. The training in our schools has too often checked and depressed the vigorous natural instincts of healthy boys and girls. The scout movement realized this, enlisted them in the development of body, mind and spirit, and taught that the self can be fully realized only in service to others. The great Jamborees of 1920 and 1929 were attended by scouts from every part of the Empire, and, indeed, from almost every country in the world. B.-P. had not to wait for recognition until his death. He was a great Englishman, a gallant soldier, a writer and artist of distinction, and an administrator supremely skilful in his handling of both young and old. His great gifts were devoted to the service of his countrymen and of all mankind.

HENRI BERGSON

THE passing of famous men is at the best a melancholy affair. But, if the papers have the truth correctly reported from Vichy, Bergson's end was tragic in the Greek sense of the word. Refusing exemption from the provisions of the recent French Jewish statute to which he was entitled on the grounds of having "rendered exceptional service in the literary, scientific or artistic sphere", he registered as a Jew and made his last public appearance "in dressing-gown and slippers, supported by his valet and nurse". I quote from the *Daily Telegraph*.

Proust, Gide, Valéry, Claudel, all derive directly or indirectly from him. Proust's work is but a novelist's conception and development of the theory of Intuition as expounded by Bergson. It is by Intuition alone, and not by the Intellect—a special faculty evolved for purposes of action only—that we enter into and grasp the nature and meaning of reality as an indivisible whole. Claudel and Valéry seem constantly obsessed by the antithesis that must exist between choice and freedom if the theory of Intuition be sustained. Gide, as founder of the *Nouvelle Revue Française*, has attracted a wide range of talent from Proust, Valéry and Giraudoux down to the enigmatic Julian Green.

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Bergson, in that final gesture of his, his last years clouded by the new materialistic conception that brought defeat to the country of his adoption and tempted him to betray his race, ill and tired, has re-affirmed his belief in humanity and an undimmed confidence in his theory of "Evolution Créatrice".

VERNON MALLINSON.

PROFESSOR GILBERT MURRAY, O.M.

A FORMER Duke of Devonshire, referring to the Order of the Garter, said that at any rate there was no nonsense of merit about it. Though the Garter is the premier Order in rank, many people will consider it inferior to the Order of Merit, and the rare and appropriate bestowal of the O.M. justifies this view. Its latest recipient receives it not only because he is a great scholar but also because he is a great citizen of the world. The late Mr. H. A. L. Fisher once remarked that it was a pity that the first classical scholar in Europe should have to spend a good deal of time in going through the agenda of the League of Nations Union, but we cannot help feeling that it is this work for peace and international understanding that has been one of Professor Murray's finest achievements. He has deserved the O.M. for his teaching of the humanities and his vivid interpretation of Greek drama, and he has equally deserved it for his disinterested activities as a democratic citizen. No honour has been more nobly earned or more generally welcomed.

LIEUT.-COLONEL J. M. MITCHELL

COLONEL MITCHELL died at Nottingham on Christmas Eve at the age of 61. He was for twenty years Secretary to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which post he resigned last year owing to ill health. He rendered conspicuous service to the Trust, and through them to the various educational and social agencies which they have assisted. His work in connexion with the library movement will remain as an abiding monument to him. Before his appointment to the Trust, he acted as one of the Editors of the eleventh edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, and published various classical editions, of which *Petronius, Leader of Fashion* ran to three editions. He was President of the Library Association, Vice President of the Irish Library Association and of the Scottish Council for Community Service, and Vice-President of the National Association of Boys' Clubs. He was a member of the Adult Education and Public Library Committees of the Board of Education. He spent four years on the Western Front during the last war, was awarded the M.C., and was four times mentioned in despatches. He became C.B.E. in 1932. He will be remembered by his many friends not only for his brilliant intellectual gifts and his administrative skill, but also for his unchanging kindness and courtesy in all his public and personal relations.

School Meals.—Further help to enable local education authorities to expedite and expand the provision of school meals is announced by the Board of Education in Administrative Memorandum No. 267, which states that this expansion is called for in a special degree in the reception areas. H.M. inspectors are empowered to approve proposals involving capital expenditure out of revenue up to £500 on adaptation of premises, equipment, and furniture. Rented premises for use as school canteens may now be occupied immediately with H.M. inspectors' approval if provisional terms are made with the owners, subject to these terms being confirmed later.

Diphtheria Prophylaxis.—Local authorities are urged to make a special effort to secure the immunization from diphtheria of as many children as possible. Co-operation is urged between the local district health authorities and the county councils, and in particular it is hoped to secure the help of the county authorities in dealing with the immunization of school children through the service of their school medical staffs and in the provision, so far as possible, of premises and equipment.

Teachers and the Home Guard.—Administrative Memorandum No. 270 states more clearly the position of teachers who wish to join the Home Guard. Teachers may join provided that, if circumstances arise when their services will be required in the schools, they will not be required to give full-time service in the Home Guard.

Use of School Premises Out of School Hours.—Local education authorities are in general responding readily to the request that they should do all that they can towards ensuring the success of the arrangements for evacuated mothers and children. The use of school premises, at times when they are not required for educational purposes, as centres for occupation and recreation for the mothers and children is a specially valuable help. Such use of schools may necessitate additional expenditure on black-out, heating, lighting, caretaking, &c. Any such expenditure will be reimbursed by the Exchequer, and for this purpose may be entered in the evacuation account either of the local education authority, subject to H.M. inspector's approval under Circular 1481, or of the billeting authority, as may be most appropriate.

Air Raid Precautions in Schools.—Circular 1535 (H.M.S.O., 2d.) issued by the Board of Education, brings together in a single document the more important items of advice which the Board have given to local authorities from time to time on the protection of school children against air attack and other cognate problems arising out of the war. The circular, however, is not a mere codification of advice already given, but includes a body of new advice based on actual experience of present conditions. Suggestions are given for making school shelters more comfortable, and general advice to ensure that the time spent by school children in the shelters is not wasted. The circular will greatly help local education authorities and teachers in the solution of their many problems.

An Air Raid Shelter Club.—Workers among youth will be interested in what has been done in Paddington to overcome the difficulties of bombs and the black-out. The Clarendon Youth Centre, which was opened last April for young railway, shop, and factory workers, has prepared a plan for an air-raid shelter club. This has been approved by the local authority and the Board of Education. One of two large surface shelters which have been taken over is being equipped with table tennis and billiards, armchairs and tables, and a small library. Bunks and a central screen in the other will make of it an excellent dormitory. If sufficient equipment can be obtained a canteen, from which hot meals and breakfast can be served, will be set up. This plan of taking the club to the shelter may commend itself to social workers in other districts.

The Classical Association.—Arrangements are being made provisionally for a general meeting to be held at St. Hilda's Hall, Oxford, from Monday, April 21, to Wednesday, April 23. The presidential address will be delivered by Sir Richard Livingstone on Tuesday afternoon.

Cecil Peace Prize.—The Cecil Peace Prize of £100 is open to all undergraduates, without distinction of sex or nationality, of any university or university college in Great Britain or Northern Ireland, who have not attained the age of 25 years on the last day for submitting essays. A prize winner is not eligible to compete a second time. The subject for the year 1941 is—"What changes should be made at

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the end of the war in the international machinery for the maintenance of peace ? " The essays must be sent in to the Secretary, Universities Bureau of the British Empire, c/o University College, Gower Street, London, W.C. 1, so as to arrive on or before November 1, 1941. Each essay must be typed in double spacing and headed with a motto, but must not bear the candidate's name. It must be accompanied by a sealed envelope having the motto outside, and the name and address and the university or college of the candidate inside, together with a statement as to the date and place of his birth. Essays will be disqualified which give any indication of the identity of the candidate.

C.E.M.A.—The Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts (C.E.M.A.), through which the Board of Education are co-operating with the Pilgrim Trustees, are carrying first-class music, drama, and paintings, as a means of stimulus and refreshment both mental and spiritual, to places which have only infrequent opportunity of enjoying them and, under present conditions, might otherwise have no such opportunity at all. In many instances local education authorities have given their assistance by making school halls available in places where the use of no other suitable hall can readily be obtained. At the same time it has often been possible to arrange rehearsal performances to audiences of school children, thus bringing the children within the scope of a service which cannot by its terms of reference be employed directly for them. The Council hope to extend their work during the winter months, particularly in the reception areas where it is likely to have a special value. H.M. inspectors will advise local education authorities, as occasion arises, of any call for their help and of opportunities such as are indicated.

Youth Service Corps.—Mr. Herwald Ramsbotham, President of the Board of Education, who has just returned from an extensive tour in East Suffolk, where he saw at work the first Youth Service Corps to be started in this country, was deeply impressed with the enthusiasm shown and expressed the hope that similar organizations would soon be set up all over the country. Reports so far received show that about thirty authorities have similar schemes, adapted to local conditions, either started or under consideration. In many cases the demand for service has come from youth themselves. At a recent youth conference in the north, several young speakers expressed the desire to serve the country in its time of need. " We are too young to serve in existing national service organizations," they said, " but tell us what we can do and we will do it."

Surrey Youth Movement.—Speaking recently at a meeting of the Surrey Education Committee, Mr. J. Chuter Ede, M.P., Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, welcomed the statement that the Surrey County Teachers' Association had informed the committee of their interest in the Youth Movement, and that they proposed to make suggestions for co-operation between the day school, the evening institute, and local youth councils. He said that he had found in several parts of the country a fear that the development of the Youth Movement might draw intending pupils away from evening institutes. He did not share that fear. The institutes were the successors of bodies like the mechanics' institutes, and could trace their ancestry back to a period when the State took no interest in the workers' education and even regarded it as a danger. The institutes had, during the past century, steadily adapted themselves to the actual educational needs of their clientele. There was every reason, therefore, why they should find opportunities for beneficially interesting the studious young men and women who attended them in some of the less formal wide social activities associated with the Youth Movement. Reciprocally, youth leaders would find their work greatly helped by actively encouraging the members of their various voluntary organizations to join appropriate courses in the institutes. Competition was a quite unnecessary evil; co-operation would prove a help to both the institutes and the voluntary organizations.

St. David's Day, 1941.—The University of Wales Press Board had intended publishing for St. David's Day, 1941, a book similar to those which had previously been published at the request of the Welsh Department of the Board of Education—a treatment of the life and work of some famous Welshman or Welshmen, but, in view of the present exceptional circumstances, it was resolved to look for something more timely in its appeal. The Press Board, therefore, at the suggestion of the Welsh Department of the Board of Education, has decided to publish early as its St. David's Day book for 1941, a small anthology of Welsh Prose and Poetry. It is not intended to be a collection of the best things in the language so much as an anthology of writings about Wales—the land, the people, and the language—and of the work of Welshmen who have written on life and its problems generally. It is intended chiefly for the young men and women of Wales who are now away from home. The anthology contains about a hundred extracts from the work of some sixty authors, past and present. The book will also be of real value to the boys and girls in the secondary schools, the senior schools, and the upper classes of the other elementary schools.

The British Council.—The British Council, working under the general supervision of the Foreign Office, have been entrusted with special responsibility for helping to meet the educational and cultural needs of the large number of aliens now in this country, particularly merchant seamen and war refugees. The Council have accordingly appointed three Regional Officers, provisionally, for England and Wales. The Council have informed the Board of Education that these officers have received great assistance from those local education authorities whose help they have sought. Other appointments will probably be made later. The Report of the Council for the third quarter, 1940, shows the wide range of activities which the Council undertake, both in this country and abroad. The Council have now been granted a Royal Charter of Incorporation.

The Colonial Empire.—A new map in colour of the British Colonies, Protectorates, Mandated and High Commission Territories and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, showing their situation and size in relation to one another and to the British Isles, has been published by *The Crown Colonist*, 33 Tothill Street, London, S.W. 1. Its price is 6s. net in sheet, unmounted, and 15s. net mounted on cloth and varnished with rollers, or on cloth, dissected to fold.

Chaffcombe News Letter.—In the February, 1940, issue of this *Journal* we published an article entitled " Realism in Education ", in which the author outlined the benefits derived by a number of school children who had been evacuated to Folkestone. Most of these children were evacuated for a second time to a village in Somerset. They have now produced the first number of a magazine, *The Chaffcombe News Letter*, in which the children describe their experiences in their rural surroundings. The cost of the printing of the magazine has been defrayed by the collection of a ton of acorns for the farmers' pigs. The sponsors of the news-letter hope that it will do much to allay the natural fears and worries of parents.

Malvern Girls' College.—Major and Minor Scholarships, both Academic and for Instrumental Music, will be awarded on an examination to be held on March 11, 12, and 13. All particulars may be had from the Headmistress.

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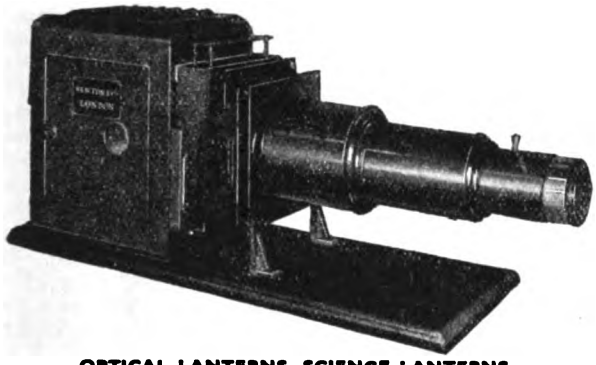

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NEW BOOKS

THE DEMOCRATIC NOTE IN EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE

By T. RAYMONT

THE distinction between aims and methods is well known to every teacher. The most effective methods produce the most disastrous results, if the aims are wrong. The latest example of this truth is of course Hitler's Youth Movement. Whilst we abhor his aims, we are bound to admit the efficacy of his methods. In any event the results of that movement upon the mentality of German youth will not be obliterated for many a long day. That the democracies are at last well aware of the tremendous importance of guiding their youth betimes is shown in many ways. It is shown, for example, by a number of recently published books meant chiefly, though not entirely, to help teachers at the present crisis.

One of the most valuable of such books[1] is Mr. Ramsay Muir's *Civilization and Liberty*, published, thanks to generous financial aid from the Association for Education in Citizenship, at a remarkably low price. He writes as one who knows by what slow and difficult stages such liberty as we possess has been attained, and he knows, as indeed all of us now know, how easily it can be lost. His short, simple, and direct survey, which may be followed by readers who are not learned in history, begins with primitive man and extends to the outbreak of the present war. He shows, as only an accomplished historian could show, how civilizations have prospered with individual liberty, and stagnated and decayed under despotism. The reader whose political memory goes back as far as 1880 may prefer to begin with the last ten chapters, but in any case not a page of this inspiring book should be missed.

We turn next to an American writer,[2] a professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University. As compared with history, education, as a subject of study, is usually considered, and not without reason, a dull subject. Prof. Newlon writes indeed as a philosopher, and he writes for the serious student, who at any rate will not find him dull. In our judgment he has produced a fine book—one of the few recent books on education well worth careful reading. He is fully aware of America's strength, but he is candid concerning her perils. He sees that preoccupation with statistical methods has distracted attention from the study of education in its deeper social relationships, a region in which quantitative methods do not afford much help. He sees the perils of vast wealth owned by a few, whilst the majority possess nothing except "the clothes on their backs and the meagre furniture in their homes". He realizes where the "rugged individualism" of the past is leading modern America. He views with apprehension the numerous instances of teachers being "driven out of colleges and schools because certain individuals or groups took exception to their treatment of controversial issues in the class-room". He is under no illusion as to the nature of the European conflict and "the myth of neutrality", and he realizes the danger in America from "Fascist-minded reactionaries" who do not hesitate to take the law into their own hands in industrial disputes, who do not hesitate to deny men their civil rights of freedom of speech and assembly, and who will, once aroused, recognize no authority but superior force. And, if it be asked what all this has to do with education, his reply is—everything, for "the future of education and the future of democracy are inseparable. Democracy is education, and education is democracy". For the line of argument by which the author reaches this conclusion we must refer the reader to this excellent book. We assure him that the words we have quoted are the precise opposite of clap-trap.

We have mentioned Prof. Newlon's strictures on one-sided emphasis upon the things in education which can be measured, to the neglect of far more important things which do not lend themselves to quantitative treatment. We are glad to find that the third book on our list,[3] by a British writer, which might easily have been open to the same charge, explicitly avoids it. In his short but valuable book on *The Educational Needs of Democracy*, Dr. W. P. Alexander gives a succinct view, marked by independence of judgment, of the bearings of psychological research upon the educational problems of school classification, selection for secondary schools, and the treatment of the backward child. But having done so he ends with a strong reminder of the futility of the best methods, unless the teacher has a clear realization of the true aims of education in a democratic community. It is worth while observing that in expounding this theme he naturally assumes that the British teacher enjoys a degree of freedom which, according to Prof. Newlon and many other high authorities, is not the common lot of the American teacher.

[1] **Civilization and Liberty.** By RAMSAY MUIR. (2s. 6d. net. Cape.)

[2] **Education for Democracy in Our Time.** By Prof. J. H. NEWLON. (16s. 6d. McGraw Hill Publishing Co.)

[3] **The Educational Needs of Democracy.** By Dr. W. P. ALEXANDER. (3s. net. University of London Press.)

WORDS, WORDS, WORDS!

By VERNON MALLINSON, Senior Modern Language Master, Loughborough Grammar School

THERE are friends of mine who find Bradshaw irresistible. For my part I make about as much sense of it as most schoolboys make of the French or German dictionary a doting maiden aunt has given them as a Christmas box. Not that there is much wrong with either the dictionary or Bradshaw in principle. They merely lack imagination and understanding of human foibles and as a result are full of traps and snares for the uninitiate. Just as the schoolboy wishing to translate "the bark of the dog" looks up "bark" and gives us "l'écorce du chien", so do I, wishing to go to Manchester, finish up at Wigan.

I strongly suspect Mr. Goodridge, the compiler of this really practical English-French Dictionary,* of knowing all about the maiden aunts and the inability of most of us to see much farther, if as far, as the end of the nose. A dictionary, he claims, "should make direct appeal to constructive thought. . . . In many old-fashioned glossaries . . . the investigator was left to his own beclouded choice as to which term in which group was precisely the one he was seeking. I have endeavoured to lessen this difficulty in the first place by dispensing with all synonyms; secondly by explaining in brackets the exact meanings of words".

The net result is that inspired by his desire to provide "something more than mechanical equivalents to terms in another language", Mr. Goodridge has compiled a ready book of reference that is the most exciting and stimulating your reviewer has met. The following examples, chosen quite at random, should prove his point:

> **bark*:* s. (tree) écorce, f.; (left on felled tree) grume, f.; (dog) aboiement, m.; *his —— is worse than his bite*, il n'est pas si méchant qu'il en a l'air.
>
> *deliver:* v.a. (liberate) délivrer; (letters) distribuer; (message, note, &c.) remettre;* (opinion) exprimer; (speech) prononcer; (goods) livrer; (blow) asséner; —— up, livrer; be ——ed of (child) accoucher de.

* **A Practical English-French Dictionary for English-Speaking Countries.** Compiled by G. W. F. R. GOODRIDGE. (5s. net. Bound with Concise Oxford French Dictionary, 10s. net. Oxford University Press.)

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sober : (not drunk) *use* ne pas être ivre ; (moderate and colours) sobre ; (sensible) sensé ; (absolute) tout simple ; (sedate) sérieux, ——se ; ♦ *sobre*—" abstemious ", " temperate ", but never " not drunk " ; ——ly, modérément.

Lack of space forbids quotation from many illuminating paragraphs, and in particular of the beautifully clear treatment of that vexing word " do ".

It will be noted that Mr. Goodridge uses a warning asterisk for all irregular and defective verbs, and that he has adopted the danger-signal ♦ used to such good effect by M. Chevalley in his compilation of the Concise Oxford French Dictionary. Indeed, this volume together with the late M. Chevalley's earlier work is the finest shorter contribution yet made towards a more humane and sympathetic study of —— WORDS.

Art and Handicraft

How to be a Handyman

By W. P. MATTHEW. (2s. 6d. net. Blackie.)

There is little need to introduce Mr. Matthew to his readers. His broadcasts on the radio have proved him to be a most successful broadcaster on the hundred and one things connected with the building and decorating trades. The book is written in the same homely and intimate style. It makes excellent reading and the enthusiasm of the author becomes infectious. It is an excellent example of a book from an author who knows his subject and is able to pass on his knowledge to others in a very decisive manner, and with a freshness that is unique.

Craftwork in Wood

By E. H. HEELAS. (4s. 6d. In Two Parts, Part 1, 2s. ; Part 2, 3s. Oxford University Press.)

This book has obviously been written as a handy reference book for students of woodwork who intend to take the subject in the School Certificate Examination. It is in two parts : Part 1 contains sections on Drawing, Tools and Materials, Timber and Finishing ; Part 2 follows with chapters on Construction, Veneering, Design and Practical Work, and Model Exercises. Each section contains the matter generally asked for in examination papers and is followed by a number of typical questions taken from the London General Schools Examination in Handicraft and the corresponding examination of the Central Welsh Board. The book contains much very sound material and most teachers of the subject will agree with the author's views.

Classics

Europe's Apprenticeship: a Survey of Medieval Latin, with Examples

By Dr. G. G. COULTON. (8s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

In Italian the word *busillis* means a stumbling-block. Why ? Because once an ignorant reader of the Breviary, confronted with " *in diebus illis* ", thought the first half referred to India, but could make nothing of the rest. Dr. Coulton's thesis is that this kind of ignorance was common among the medieval clergy, that even University students were often in need of instruction in ' grammar ', that Latin never really ousted the vernacular to become the *lingua franca* it is supposed to have been, and that in any case its vaunted precision has been greatly exaggerated.

As one expects in a medievalist of Dr. Coulton's eminence, the chapters that expose the deficiencies in medieval education and state the case for the vernacular are richly and accurately documented : still the ordinary reader may interpret some of Dr. Coulton's examples in a different light. There is that often-quoted gem thrown up as a result of the Sarum visitation in 1222 : a priest, asked by the examiner to explain " *te igitur clementissime pater* ", said that *te* was governed by *pater*, " because He governeth all things ". It is always the feeble examinee whose efforts get most publicity, and the reader's suspicion that he is being treated to a medieval equivalent of " the pink emu laid another egg " is increased when he finds, on the same page, that another cleric believed *Te igitur* was St. Clement's father.

Then there was the prelate who found no mustard at table and grumbled " *Quanta patimus pro ecclesia Dei !* " excusing his grammar on the grounds that *patimus* was just as good a genitive as *patimur*. Even granting that this ignorance is typical, the fact remains that the prelate found bad Latin a ready enough vehicle for his cynical jest ; and since Johannes Adelphus himself used Latin to satirize the howler, the inference seems to be that Latin was, after all, a means of communication. In fact until the Industrial Revolution mechanized the vocabularies of Europe—long after the vernaculars had grown into national languages—Latin was still used by jurists, philosophers, and mathematicians.

The second half of the book consists of an opulent selection of passages from medieval Latin authors with parallel translations. Here we have a Vulgate Psalm, the sombre magnificence of " *Vexilla regis prodeunt* ", love songs from the Carmina Burana, Gerald the Welshman's sarcastic collection of clerical howlers, Richard Wych's account of a young man who resigned lands and fiancée to his brother in order to share one room and one gown with two other needy scholars in Paris, and, perhaps most appealing of all, St. Augustine's tender account of his mother's last days.

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Education

Penn'orth of Chips: Backward Children in the Making

By C. S. SEGAL. (3s. 6d. net. Gollancz.)

The title *Penn'orth of Chips* arises out of a sadly typical talk with a boy who had had for breakfast half a cup of tea and half a slice of bread and butter (*i.e.* " marge "), for dinner bread and butter and tea, for tea half a slice of bread and half a cup of tea. What about supper? " Oh, we never have any supper except of a Saturday night, when we get a penn'orth of chips." The author has personally observed and recorded, during many years, the accessible facts relating to the domestic, social, physical, and mental conditions of his pupils, and the outcome is a first-hand picture—not a whit overdrawn, as Dr. Burt testifies—of the adverse factors which handicap so many of the children of London and other cities. The author set out to study the questions whether the duller and more backward children are ill-fed and ill-clad compared with the brighter, and how far extreme poverty is a barrier which even the brightest can never surmount. Near the close of the last war we heard much about making a C3 population impossible. Much has been done since then, but this book makes out a strong case for further reforms which are even yet both urgent and practicable.

Conference on Examinations under the Auspices of the Carnegie Corporation, the Carnegie Foundation, the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, at the Hotel Royal, Dinard, France, September 16th to 19th, 1938

Conference Organized and Proceedings edited by P. MONROE. (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.)

Three plenary meetings of the International Conference on Examinations have been held, the first at Eastbourne in 1931, the second at Folkestone in 1935, and the third at Dinard in 1938. The volume above described contains the report on the Dinard conference. The countries represented were England, Finland, France, Norway, Scotland, Sweden, and the United States—a list which reminds one that much has happened since September 16 to 19, 1938, the date of the conference. Among the many interesting topics discussed we note the inquiry of a French Commission on the *baccalauréat*, the relations between the *École Normale Supérieure* and the examination system, the selection of secondary school entrants in France, and Sir Philip Hartog's account of an investigation of the English essay. The whole report appears to be verbatim, even to the exchange of pleasantries and courtesies between the members of the conference.

English

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The Plain Man and the Novel

By R. DATALLER. (Discussion Books.) (2s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

We are all readers of novels, and most of us would call ourselves plain men. Mr. Dataller, himself a novelist, thinks that the novel is in a bad way, and that the Plain Man's prime interest as a novel reader is in the story which it unfurls. " Ideas are relatively unimportant." The Plain Man likes a beginning, a middle and an end, and writers like Mrs. Virginia Woolf simply puzzle him. Mr. Dataller tries to help him to find in the welter of modern fiction " the experience that squares with his own reality ", though whether this phrase will mean anything particular to the Plain Man may perhaps be doubted. Mr. Dataller considers the novel under nine heads—Detective, Propaganda, Historical, Industrial, Autobiographical, Sex, Sea, Rural, Social—and there is a short chapter on Reputations, with a Conclusion. What is said is always interesting, sometimes illuminating, often provocative. The Plain Man presumably is not likely to be interested in Meredith, so Mr. Dataller has nothing to say about him. Is he more likely to read Gogol or, for the matter of that, D. H. Lawrence? On the other hand, does he really find *Esmond* " unreadable ", and, if he has ever heard of T. F. Powys, would he agree that his characters " can lick hollow the President of the Immortals at his own game ", or that in comparison with Mr. H. E. Bates' " Hardy's rustics are a legion of inconsequential chatterboxes "? The Plain Man might perhaps have liked more pages devoted to Jane Austen, and fewer to Charlotte Yonge, and something about Chesterton and Belloc. However, Mr. Dataller has written a book which every Plain Man should enjoy, and from which, whether he agrees with the author or not, he can learn much.

Comments and Characters

By JOHN BUCHAN (Lord TWEEDSMUIR). Edited with Introduction by W. FORBES GRAY. (7s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

Most people are familiar with John Buchan as the author of certain biographies and exciting tales. Few know that in 1907–8, while still in the thirties, he acted as editor of *The Scottish Review*, a weekly penny journal that was published by Nelson & Sons, and ceased publication in 1908. The acting editor was Mr. Forbes Gray, and he has collected in this volume a number of John Buchan's contributions to *The Review*. They cover a wide field—domestic politics, the Empire, foreign affairs, socialism and industry, literature and journalism, travel. There are also a number of character sketches of famous Scotsmen—Lord Rosebery, Lord Balfour, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, Lord Haldane, Lord Kelvin, David Livingstone, Sir J. M. Barrie, Edward Caird and Archbishop Lang, with some miscellaneous articles which deal among other subjects with the fiasco of the Hague Conference, Anglicanism and Christianity, an Imperial Conference on Education. There are also interesting passages from *The London Letter*—Hardy as a Dramatist, Bernard Shaw's Perversities, Statesmen as Classical Scholars, &c. There is a good index. This volume throws a new and interesting light upon a most attractive personality, whose comparatively early death was deeply deplored throughout the Empire.

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Some English Dictators

By M. WALDMAN. (12s. 6d. net. Blackie.)

The title of this book excites curiosity. According to the author England has had at least four dictators, John, Henry VIII, Elizabeth, and Cromwell. Liberty survived the first dictatorship, " enshrined in Magna Carta, though at times more like embalmed in it ". The author points out that Shakespeare in his *King John* does not once mention Magna Carta. " He would almost certainly have got into trouble if he had." The greater part of the book is concerned with the history of the 150 years which cover the period from the accession of Henry VIII to the death of Cromwell. Both Tudors and Stuarts assumed monarchy to be for all intents and purposes synonymous with Divinity, but, while Elizabeth acted on the precept, " I have let time pass which I generally find helps more than reasoning ", her Stuart successors endeavoured to erect the definite right of kings into " an article of faith founded upon dialectic ". Cromwell's mistake was to try " to erect by force something inaccessible to force—a Commonwealth of God which by its very nature attains to men's inward hearts alone ". The story of these vital years is told with admirable clarity and judgment.

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Modern Languages

La Vie de France

1. Didine et les Autres. By COLETTE VIVIER. 2. Le Vie de Chaque Jour en France. By RENÉ MABEL. 3. Paris et les Parisiens. By P. RIETHER and E. PICARD. 4. Le Français et la Terre de France. By G. THIERRY. (No. 1, 9d. No. 2, 10d. Nos. 3 and 4, 1s. each. Black.)

These four readers are excellently produced. They would be suitable for a second or third year course and would teach an English child how differently the French live from ourselves. The absence of notes and vocabulary will enable the teacher to distinguish the industrious from the lazy pupil. The illustrations are well chosen and make the pupil realize what Paris and the provinces look like. In the troublous times in which we live there is no likelihood of English students visiting France, but a time will come when every English child will speak French and every French child English as Dr. Denis Saurat has prophesied.

Récits Comiques et Dramatiques: tirés des Pièces de Molière, Corneille et Racine

By M. THIÉRY. (2s. Oliver & Boyd.)

M. Thiéry, an experienced teacher, has written in simple language the story of six classical French plays—*Les Femmes Savantes* and *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme* of Molière, *Le Cid* and *Polyencte* of Corneille and *Andromaque* and *Britannicus* of Racine. He gives the plots of these plays in the simplest form. To read them in the original requires the knowledge of a fifth or sixth form pupil but, if he has read this book in a lower form, he will be able to master the original when he has to study it for examination purposes. A full vocabulary and notes have been added.

La Grammaire: Comédie-Vaudeville en un Acte

By LABICHE ET JOLLY. Edited by Dr. HELEN TRUDGIAN. With Introduction and Explanatory Notes. (1s. 2d. Blackie.)

Labiche is always a witty and interesting dramatist, as those who have read *Le Chapeau de Paille d'Italie* know well. W. E. Henley, one of the best English critics since Hazlitt, is full of praise of him. Dr. Trudgian brings this out well in her introduction, and compares Labiche with the Dutch artist, Teniers, for accuracy and with Daumier for caricature.

Cinq Contes Divertissants

By M. LEBLANC, G. DE PAWLOWSKI, M. and A. FISCHER, P. MILLE. Adapted and Edited, with Vocabulary, &c., by I. L. PERKIN. (Bell's Graduated French Readers for Rapid Reading, Middle Form.) (1s. 6d. Bell.)

Miss Perkin has selected five diverting stories from Maurice Leblanc, G. de Pawlowski, Max and Alex Fischer, and Pierre Mille for middle forms. She has added notes, questionnaires and a full vocabulary. The first sentence mentions the Lycée de Versailles, where the great Bezard taught the top form—so great was his fame that he often had as many as 100 pupils in his form.

La Bête dans les Neiges

By FRANCISQUE PARN. Edited by G. A. RIDING. (Highways and Byways of French Literature.) (1s. 9d. Blackie.)

This adventure story of the Canadian north should please a fourth or fifth form. It is full of high adventure and exciting events and would be finished in a term by a well-prepared class. A full vocabulary has been added.

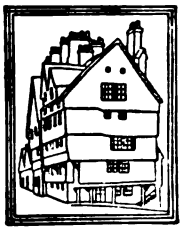
A Revision Course of French Grammar

By B. J. PENDLEBURY. (1s. 9d. Blackie.)

This book would serve as a sequel to Payen-Payne's *Essentials of French Grammar*. Often boys in high forms are uncertain on points of grammar and this book, if worked through systematically by a fourth form, will give that certainty that is necessary for examination purposes. The exercises should be written out and corrected. It contains the whole of French grammar and a full vocabulary.

Late of

PATERNOSTER ROW



NELSON

Messrs. Nelson's London premises have been completely destroyed by enemy action. This makes it necessary for all communications to be addressed, in future, to the offices at Edinburgh. Messrs. Nelson's would also be very pleased to receive duplicate copies of any correspondence which was addressed to them at Paternoster Row between 23rd and 30th December, 1940.

★ ★ ★

ALTERNATIVE FIRST FRENCH COURSE

By E. B. CRAMPTON, B.A.

This book contains more exercises and is less steeply graded than *Nelson's First French Course*: and provides material for phonetic practice. There are sections with French songs, suggestions for classroom games, and —in the second year—short plays. Illustrated in colour and black-and-white. 3s.

ALTERNATIVE SECOND FRENCH COURSE

By E. B. CRAMPTON, B.A.

A third and fourth year course, with full revision of the first two years' grammar, providing everything needed up to School Certificate standard. Special lessons, with photographs and regional maps, add knowledge of French habits and history. 3s. 3d.

NELSON

Parkside Works, Edinburgh, 9

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Music

The Easiest Way

By H. GEEHL and A. ROWLEY. (1s. 6d. Larway.)

This Tutor, so the Preface tells us, " does away with the old and cumbersome Piano Tutor in the first stages, and is a simple way to interest the beginner in music for music's sake ". In point of fact it appears to differ very little from the much maligned Piano Tutor of former days, except that it omits some very useful steps and is not, on the whole, nearly so well graded. It does not even allude to the rhythm names, which, for the average child, every competent teacher knows to be indispensable, but we have " to count " instead ! Moreover, the appearance, on page 4, of Triple, Duple, Quadruple Time (all on the same page) in " a very simple and modern method of learning to play the piano " seems to be like a contradiction in terms ; indeed, it is difficult to understand why the book was given so ingratiating a title. In contrast to the " method " the little pieces at the end are really helpful.

Eyes off the Keyboard

By H. GEEHL and K. SIMPSON. (1s. 6d. Larway.)

This is described as a " New and Easy Method of Learning Sight Reading ". It is certainly easy—and excellent—but by no means new. Arthur Somervell, for one, was employing it twenty years ago, and it has been applied to vocal sight reading in Nelson's *Music Practice* Series as well as in MacMahon's *New Way* sight readers, among others. In any case, " new " is a very dangerous word to apply to any method, unless it was discovered so long ago that it has now long been forgotten and may be revived as new and original to-day. At any rate, the exercises in this book are admirably graded and the method is a real contribution to the study of the pianoforte.

Five Short Pieces for One Hand only

By HELLER NICHOLLS. (2s. 6d. Oxford University Press.)

An alternative title to these ingenious pieces might well be " Casualty music ", being written expressly for any boy or girl who may happen to have injured a hand during games : so now there is no excuse ! A really new and original idea this—of value not only to " monocheirs " but also to all who aspire to play the piano. Might not the composer have added an occasional note to be struck by the player's nose—assuming that that was not injured as well ?

1. Between Ourselves: Six Little Impressions for Piano

By C. M. SPURLING.

2. Let's Play Duets: Six Piano Duets

By PHYLLIS TATE. (The Anglo-French Series.) (1, 2s. 2, 2s. 6d. Oxford University Press.)

The most striking feature of these miniatures is that the music in each case fits the title so well. For example, the atmosphere of " determination " (No. 3) is ingeniously obtained by the frequent recurrence of a certain dogged little phrase. All the pieces are simple, yet thoughtfully constructed. *O si sic omnia ! Let's Play Duets* may justly be described as duets " for equal hands " in the sense that the *secondo* part throughout is just as interesting as the *primo*—an important educational asset, which is often conspicuously absent in compositions of this type. Being the good music and good fun that these duets really are they should be widely used.

A Collection of Easier Piano Compositions

By S. HELLER. Revised by K. SIMPSON. 1. Impromptu. 2. Canzonetta. 3. Contemplation. 4. Tarantella. 5. Prelude. 6. The Avalanche. (6d. each. Hinrichsen Edition.)

This excellent edition of ancient and modern music, well printed, well edited, and published at a reasonable price, has already been favourably commented upon in these columns, and now the same high standard is being maintained in these most recent additions to the repertoire.

Religious Knowledge

A Dramatised Bible Reader : for Use in Schools

By ELIZABETH G. GRAY. The Old Testament, Book II, Part I : The Heroic Period (The Judges, including Ruth and Samuel). (1s. 6d. Grant Educational Co.) A

This is an excellently worked-out series of volumes which together cover the whole of the Old Testament, presenting the salient episodes largely in the words of the Biblical text but in a form which makes reading aloud in class a close approach to acting. Wisdom and practical experience are exemplified in both the choice and the treatment of subjects. These are so linked together that the outline of the history is preserved. In the present volume (Book II, Part I) the " Heroic Period " of the Judges, including Ruth and Samuel, is covered. As a matter of method in Scripture teaching, the use of these books offers a desirable middle way between the dreary " reading round " of (it is to be hoped) other days and the full dramatization of Biblical episodes which is not always feasible, especially in middle forms.

The Oxford Book of Christian Verse

Chosen and Edited by Lord DAVID CECIL. (8s. 6d. net. Oxford : Clarendon Press.)

Lord David Cecil has performed a notable service in making this collection of English religious verse. The extracts cover some 550 pages, and are representative of every period from Chaucer to T. S. Eliot. The late Lord Haldane would, however, have deplored the omission of Emily Brontë from the authors represented. The author's introduction is worthy of his theme, and both author and publisher are to be congratulated upon the production of this most attractive volume.

BEDFORD COLLEGE FOR WOMEN

(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

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LENT TERM BEGAN TUESDAY, JANUARY 14, 1941

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Science

Can You Answer this One ? being Questions for Use in those Events known as Agricultural Knowledge Bees and Suggestions concerning their Organization

(4d. National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs.)

This booklet compiled by the National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs, should find a place in every rural school, although it is intended chiefly for the use of Young Farmers' Clubs in such activities as Agricultural 'Bees'. The booklet (of thirty-five pages) includes a most useful chapter on their organization. The questions based on agriculture, horticulture, and subsidiary subjects are conveniently grouped under eighteen headings. They are pertinent, clearly drawn and confined to essential matters. This booklet will undoubtedly serve a useful purpose especially in those schools where rural science and practical work are active partners in school life. The price of the book is no indication of its value.

Lecture Demonstrations in General Chemistry

By P. ARTHUR. (26s. McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.)

This very useful American laboratory manual, with which teachers of chemistry should certainly get acquainted, contains full and detailed instructions for carrying out over a thousand experiments. Few of them are beyond higher school certificate or scholarship standard, and most of them could be used with school certificate pupils. The book is attractively printed and its arrangement is admirable. It will be welcomed because of the sound teaching hints it contains, and because of the numerous ingenious and attractive experiments it describes —many of which are not yet known on this side of the Atlantic. Prof. Arthur's book invites comparison with G. Fowles's well-known *Lecture Experiment*, which he specially recommends. There is the same attention to manipulative detail, the same attention to sound teaching method, the same care in referring to sources—in this case, of course, chiefly to American ones. But there are many differences: Prof. Arthur has much faith in exhibitions; he suggests experiments on liquid air, rare gases, radio-activity, &c.; he devotes chapters to organic chemistry, to electro-chemistry, to photo-chemistry, and 10 out of his 29 chapters to experiments on metals. Perhaps the chief difference, however, is that he gives comparatively few quantitative experiments and suggests few "major demonstrations" which require much care, preparation, and skill. On the other hand, he describes many simple and quick demonstrations, so that although his book is nearly one-fifth shorter than Fowles', it contains more experiments.

The most noteworthy thing is that there is so little overlap between the two books—they complement each other. It is unfortunate that the high price of the American one will tend to restrict its use.

A Text-Book of Quantitative Inorganic Analysis: Theory and Practice

By Dr. A. I. VOGEL. (18s. Longmans.)

This comprehensive text-book, by the Head of the Chemistry Department at Woolwich Polytechnic, is obviously the work of an experienced teacher. And it will delight every chemist. About 250 pages are devoted to theory and to the description of general techniques. The remaining 500 consist chiefly of very clear and detailed instructions for carrying out volumetric, gravimetric, colorimetric, and gas analyses. Students who work on their own will welcome the detailed schemes of work in preparation for all kinds of examinations, from inter science to the A.I.C. Though the book is intended chiefly for university students, it should certainly be found in every sixth form laboratory. And any future chemist would be happy if he were given it as a prize—it would be an acquisition of permanent value.

Mathematical Biology

By Prof. V. A. KOSTITZIN. Translated from the French by T. H. SAVORY. (7s. 6d. net. Harrap.)

Mathematics are fast invading biology, but the extent of the conquest is still largely unrealized. The author of this book, himself a well-known mathematical biologist, has here summarized the researches already carried out in this field, and explains the results and methods in a simple and illuminating manner. He considers nearly all the biological problems that have so far been handled mathematically: problems connected with the growth of individuals and of populations, with the relations between species (parasitism and symbiosis), with the forms of living things, with the mechanism of evolution, with the circulation of inorganic matter through organisms. The knowledge of mathematics required is not very advanced, though some familiarity with differential equations is assumed. This original and fascinating book may be most warmly recommended: it will delight biologists who are not afraid of mathematics, and mathematicians who do not believe that the sole aim of mathematics is to enunciate formulae.

HALLS of RESIDENCE
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UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF SWANSEA

(A Constituent College of the University of Wales)

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Warden: Miss M. K. WILKINSON, M.A.

Fee, 57 guineas per session of 31 weeks.

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TYPEWRITING. Testimonials, Reports, Exam. Papers, &c., 1d. each, 25 (similar) 1s. 3d.; 50, 2s. MSS. Syllabuses, 10d. 1,000 words. Carbons 2d. Honours Certificate.—HURLOCK, 8 Berlin Road, Hastings.

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SCHOLARSHIPS MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES, FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

WESTFIELD COLLEGE
(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

Chairman of Council:
Rt. Hon. Viscount CALDECOTE, C.B.E.

Principal:
Mrs. J. L. STOCKS, B.Sc. (Econ.)

RESIDENTIAL College for 150 women which prepares for the Degrees of the University of London. Non-resident Students are also admitted. At the Scholarship Examination to be held in February, 1941, SCHOLARSHIPS from £100 to £30 will be awarded for CLASSICS, GERMAN, FRENCH, ENGLISH, HISTORY, BOTANY and MATHEMATICS.

Fees.—Residence, £90 a year. Tuition from 38 guineas a year.

For further particulars apply to:

The Registrar,
WESTFIELD COLLEGE,
(University of London)
at ST. PETER'S HALL, OXFORD

ALDENHAM SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys under 14 on May 1, on the results of an examination toward the end of May:

(*a*) An ALFRED SMITH SCHOLARSHIP of £80 a year.
(*b*) Three JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS, of £60 to £40 a year.
(*c*) Two or more EXHIBITIONS of about £30 a year.

INTERNAL SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys already in the School:

(*a*) Two SENIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 a year, open to boys not less than 15 and not more than 17 on May 1.
(*b*) Two JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 to £30 a year, open to all boys in the School.

LEAVING EXHIBITIONS. About three each year, from £80 downward, tenable for three years or more at the Universities.

The School Scholarships are tenable for the duration of the holder's school career.

The School Fees are £115 a year, with a Consolidated Fee of £5 a term to cover all necessary extras.

Further particulars may be had from the HEADMASTER, ALDENHAM SCHOOL, ELSTREE, HERTS.

BERKHAMSTED SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination will be held in June, 1941, for three Entrance Scholarships of the value of £60, and four or more Exhibitions of less amount.

Candidates must be under the age of 14 on June 1 immediately before the examination. The age of candidates will be taken into consideration in the examination.

Entries should be received by May 24. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

BEAUMONT COLLEGE

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS are awarded in March and June. Candidates must have taken previously the March or June Common Entrance Examination. A further Examination will be held at the College on March 28 and June 27. For further particulars apply the RECTOR, Beaumont College, Old Windsor, Berks.

BOOTHAM SCHOOL, YORK

A Public School for boys under the management of the Society of Friends.

Entrance Scholarships. An examination will be held in March for the award of nine Scholarships (£20 to £60 per annum.). Entries by February 21st.

For information apply the HEADMASTER.

BRIGHTON COLLEGE

AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

A number of Gill Memorial Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered each June to sons of Officers or Ex-Officers in H.M. Army. The highest of these awards will amount to half the total fees.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in each July, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

CHARTERHOUSE SCHOLARSHIPS, 1941

AN Examination will be held on June 3, 4, and 5 at Charterhouse, Godalming, and at Charterhouse, London, E.C. (circumstances permitting). The Scholarships, of which not less than ten will be awarded if duly qualified candidates present themselves, are of the value of £91 10s. per annum, and are open to boys between 12 and 14 on July 15 next after the examination. Application for details and form of entry should reach the SECRETARY, Charterhouse, Godalming, before May 26.

CHRIST'S HOSPITAL

A COMPETITIVE Examination for the admission of boys and girls into Christ's Hospital will be held in June next. Candidates must not be less than 10 nor more than 12½ years of age on September 1st following.

Further particulars may be obtained from the CLERK OF CHRIST'S HOSPITAL, The Counting House, Christ's Hospital, Horsham, Sussex.

CRANBROOK SCHOOL, KENT

Founded 1520

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

THE Scholarship Examination will be held on May 22 and 23, 1941; Entries up to May 12. Age limit 14½ on June 30. Five Scholarships, of £75, £50 (2) and £40 (2), together with two Exhibitions and two Bursaries, are offered annually. Total fees, with consolidated charge for extras, £103 10s. a year.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

CRANLEIGH SCHOOL, SURREY

EXAMINATIONS, March 5, 6, 7; June 4, 5, 6, 1941, for Open Scholarships and Exhibitions, £100–£30, and for Music and Choral Scholarships, £50–£30. Age limit for Open and Choral Scholars under 14, for Music under 14½, on April 1 and July 1, 1941.

Bursaries for the sons of Clergy and Officers are available.

Details from HEADMASTER'S SECRETARY.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

ETON COLLEGE

THE Examination for King's Scholarships will be held at the College on May 27, 28, and 29. Forms for entering Candidates, and all particulars, may be obtained from the CLERK to the Provost and Fellows, The Bursary, Eton College, Windsor.

FELIXSTOWE COLLEGE FOR GIRLS

At RIDDLESWORTH HALL, DISS, NORFOLK

SCHOLARSHIP Examination will be held early in May, 1941. Six Scholarships, £60–£30 and several Exhibitions. Also one Music Scholarship awarded to a candidate of sufficient merit—preferably offering strings. Entries by April 12. Age under 15 on June 1, 1941. For particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS.

FELSTED SCHOOL

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held from March 4 to 7. Nine Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 years on January 1, 1941.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Felsted School, Goodrich Court, Ross-on-Wye, Herefordshire.

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

GLENALMOND

ENTRANCE Scholarships, Exhibitions, and Bursaries, 1941. An examination which may be taken at Preparatory Schools will take place on March 10, 11, and 12 for Open Scholarships and Exhibitions and Sons of Clergy Bursaries.

Age limit for Scholarships and Exhibitions: 14 on March 1, 1941. For Bursaries: 15 on September 20. Apply to the WARDEN.

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SCHOLARSHIPS

MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES,

FELLOWSHIPS. EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

KING'S COLLEGE OF HOUSEHOLD AND SOCIAL SCIENCE

(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

Temporary Address:
c/o UNIVERSITY COLLEGE,
LEICESTER

THE following Scholarships for students wishing to read for the Degree of B.Sc. in Household and Social Science will be awarded on the results of a competitive examination to be held in May, 1941:

(a) One Scholarship of £80 per annum for three years,

(b) One Scholarship of £40 per annum for three years,

(c) Two Scholarships of £20 per annum for three years.

Full particulars can be obtained on application to the Secretary.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY

Carlyon Bay, South Cornwall

THREE Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

TWELVE to Fourteen King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

TWO Milner Memorial Scholarships value £100 per annum for five years, will be offered in June. The Milner Scholarship is open to sons of Colonial Civil Servants and others.

For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

KING WILLIAM'S COLLEGE

ISLE OF MAN

SCHOLARSHIP Examination in May. Closing day for entries, May 1. The examination may take place at candidate's School. Ten Scholarships will be offered in 1941, in value from £100 to £50 a year. Also several minor scholarships not exceeding £40 a year available. For particulars apply to the PRINCIPAL, King William's College, Isle of Man.

LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

(a) Six SCHOLARSHIPS (at least), Classical and Modern, varying from £100 to £50 per annum, according to merit and needs.

(b) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined in London, unless further notice is given to the contrary.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Shoreham, Sussex.

LOWTHER COLLEGE FOR GIRLS

Abergele, North Wales

Chairman:
Sir RONALD MACLEAY, G.C.M.G.

Headmistress:
Miss K. I. SAYERS, M.A. (Cantab)

A SCHOLARSHIP Examination for Junior, Senior and Music entrance Scholarships will be held on March 3, 4 and 5, 1941. Normal inclusive fees, £144 p.a.; maximum Senior Scholarship, £80 p.a. For full particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS. Entries close February 18.

MALVERN COLLEGE

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held on March 4, 5, 6, 1941. Up to five Scholarships of £100 and three or more of £50. A number of Exhibitions and Bursaries also will be offered to boys of all-round ability.

Candidates may take the Examination at their Preparatory Schools or at Malvern.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEADMASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in September.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS, M.A. (Cantab.).

OUNDLE SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June.

For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

RADLEY COLLEGE

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions varying in value from £120–£40 will be offered for competition in March, 1941. Candidates must be under 14 on March 1, 1941. The Examination will be held in two parts: (a) Elementary Papers at the Candidate's Preparatory School on March 10; (b) more Advanced Papers for selected candidates at Radley on March 14 and 15. Last day on which entries can be received March 3. Apply for particulars to THE WARDEN, Radley College, Abingdon, Berks.

ST. BEES SCHOOL, CUMBERLAND

A Scholarship Examination will be held in March, 1941. Candidates must be under the age of 14 on January 1, 1941. Scholarships and Exhibitions from £60 to £20 per annum will be awarded.

ST. EDWARD'S SCHOOL

A Scholarship Examination will be held in the last week of May, 1941. Scholarships are two each of £100, £70, and £50, and several Exhibitions of £30. There are also Clerical and Service Bursaries. Further information may be obtained from the BURSAR, St. Edward's School, Oxford.

ST. LEONARDS SCHOOL

St. Andrews, Fife

THE Council offers for competition in May, 1941, three Entrance Scholarships of the annual value of £80, £70, and £60, tenable fo four years. Candidates must be under 15 on July 31 1941. Further particulars may be obtained from Miss J. A. MACFARLANE, M.A., Head Mistress.

SEDBERGH SCHOOL

THE Examination for Ten Entrance Scholarships and Exhibitions, of the annual value of £100 to £40, will be held in May or June, in London and Sedbergh. Candidates must be under 14 years of age on January 1.

For further information apply to the HEADMASTER, Sedbergh School, Yorkshire.

SHREWSBURY SCHOOL

THE Scholarship Examination, 1941, will be held at Shrewsbury on May 27, 28, and 29. It is possible, if circumstances later suggest, that a preliminary examination will be given in the previous week at Candidates' own schools, only selected Boys being then summoned to Shrewsbury for a shorter final examination.

Eleven Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered, including two of £100, two of £80, one of £60, an Arthur Bailey Scholarship of £60 (for the son of an Officer in the O.B.L.I., or, in default, of a Regular Officer), the T.E. Pickering Scholarship of £35; two to four Exhibitions of £40 or £30 (according to merit); an Exhibition for Music of £30. In special cases financial assistance somewhat above the titular value may be given. Candidates to be under 14 on April 1, 1941. Full information on application to the BURSAR.

STOWE

TEN Scholarships and four Bursaries are offered every summer to boys under 14 on May 1. Examination, 1941: June 4–6. Particulars from the HEADMASTER, Stowe School, Buckingham.

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THREE or four Open Foundation Scholarships of £100 a year, and six other Scholarships and Exhibitions of between £25 and £75 a year will be awarded in June, 1941, if suitable candidates of sufficient merit present themselves. Candidates must be under 14 on January 1, 1941. A large choice of subjects in the Final Examination is available, including Science, German, and Music. Scholarships and Exhibitions may in certain cases be increased by such an amount as the circumstances of the Scholar may require. Full particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER.

The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

THE MOUNT SCHOOL, YORK

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS.—Ten entrance scholarships of £40 to £60 a year are offered to girls aged 12 to 16. Examination February. Particulars from the HEADMISTRESS.

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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MARCH 1941

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A MONTHLY RECORD AND REVIEW
with which is incorporated
THE SCHOOL WORLD

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

WE welcome the letter to *The Times* of December 21, signed by the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Catholic Archbishop of Westminster, and the Moderator of the Free Church Federal Council, setting out the basic principles of a new world order. The letter expresses agreement with the Pope's 'five peace points' first issued a year ago, and supplements them with five further points, which stress the individual and the family, rather than nations and their rulers. Among these additional points we note in particular that in the considered judgment of the signatories "every child, regardless of race or class, should have equal opportunities of education, suitable for the development of his peculiar capacities". In the past the Churches have done great things for education, but usually with strict regard to the distinction between 'the masses' and 'the classes'. Here, however, if words mean anything, we have a clean breakaway from the idea of an educational system founded upon differences of class instead of differences of natural ability. To begin to put this idea into practice we need not wait till the end of the war.

The Churches' Lead.

THE same point is emphasized by Dr. L. P. Jacks in a letter to *The Times* of December 30. There are, he says, modes of peace-building that contribute to war-winning. These should not be postponed till "after the war" but set on foot as *aids to victory* (italics ours) while the war is in progress. The most desirable form victory could take is that of victory for a new and better world order, and not merely that of victory of one nation over another. The first it can hardly be if, when the war ends, the new order is still a project in the air, the germ of it unplanted and nothing done to make it a reality. "Hitler", adds Dr. Jacks, "seems to be aware of this. His version of a new order—a peace of death and slavery—is no project in the air, but a going concern in Germany and elsewhere. *Fas est et ab hoste doceri*—by creating without delay the nucleus of a better order than his and using it as an aid to defeating him". We should like to see this principle applied to the particular case of our educational system.

Action Now as Aid to Victory.

WE heartily welcome the statement on Christian Education which has just been issued over the signatures of the three Archbishops, with the full agreement of the leaders of the Free Churches. Its main recommendations are (1) that in all schools a Christian education should be given to all scholars, subject to the conscience clause, by teachers able and willing to give it; (2) that religious knowledge should be an 'optional subject' in the School Certificate and not merely an 'additional option', and that local education authorities should develop post-graduate courses in this subject and encourage teachers to attend them; (3) that it should be possible to give this teaching at any period within school hours so that a duly qualified teacher may take several classes at different periods; (4) that the subject should be open to inspection by H.M. inspectors or other duly authorized persons; (5) that in all schools the day should begin with an act of worship on the part of the whole school. All these proposals have already been advocated in *The Journal*. *The Times* in its leading article of February 13 supports the statement and urges immediate action. "The public mind will become apathetic again if action be too long delayed and each year a further batch of semi-pagan children passes from school life into citizenship." We have already expressed our regret at the failure on the part of *The Times* to acknowledge the strenuous and successful efforts of local education authorities and teachers to improve religious instruction in the schools. In contrast, the Archbishops "most gladly bear witness to the admirable Christian teaching often given by teachers in provided schools".

Religious Education: The Churches' Point of View.

MR. RAMSBOTHAM, in his piquant address to the London Rotary Club, began by saying that educational topics were too often the happy hunting ground of well-meaning, woolly highbrows who behaved, to

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parody Matthew Arnold's description of Shelley, like "intellectual angels bleating in the void voluminous things in vain". Education, he said, is a subject which tempts many speakers and writers to take refuge in impalpable essences, and sometimes produces from the emotionally minded a welter of moral platitudes and eloquent elevating exhortations. He then went on to remark that but for the war the leaving age would have been raised to 15, and he would have been looking forward to restoring the Fisher Act and providing day continuation classes for all boys and girls between 15 and 18. Both these measures would have set the stage for further advance. Nevertheless they were doing constructive work, and were making good progress on a voluntary basis in providing for the needs of boys and girls between 14 and 20. Local youth committees had been set up by 141 out of 146 of the higher education authorities, and the voluntary associations, such as boy scouts and the Y.M.C.A., had been enabled to form many new clubs. But 70 per cent of the young people were not members of these voluntary bodies, and they were attempting to provide for these by forming Youth Service Corps. He did not intend to satisfy those who asked for compulsion and the appointment of a superfunctionary called a Commissioner for Youth, nor would he promise that there would be a march past the president, himself attired in gown and mortar-board and the boys and girls with pens at the slope and blackboards flying. Less spectacular methods would give better results. The address showed that the president, while enlivening his remarks with humour, is very much in earnest in the task to which he has set his hand.

Mr. Ramsbotham and the Rotarians.

MR. RAMSBOTHAM also took part in a broadcast to schools from a B.B.C. studio, and *The Teachers' World* gives an interesting account of the event. A refugee boy from Nazi Germany named Hans, who is supposed to be living in England with a retired schoolmaster, carries on a conversation with the president. In the course of this it is made clear that in Germany Hans did not ask so many questions as he does here. He was told that this was so, or that was not so, or that the Fuehrer had said it, whereas now he was told to ask Miss Jones or to look in the encyclopaedia or to go to the public library. The president admitted that when he was a boy things were different, and that Hans "would have stood a good chance of being told to shut up" for asking questions, and this led on to a discussion of the rights of teachers and their relations with the Government. Hans hears more about the freedom of children to ask questions and to read what books they like, and finally suggests that to allow them to go to work at 14 is to leave them too free. The president replies by outlining his post-war programme—raising the leaving age to 15 or beyond, getting young people released from their work for a definite period each week to continue their education, and so forth. He hopes that Hans will some day return to Germany and, when he is grown up, do his best to see that German teachers and pupils will always be free to teach and learn and read what they think right, and to ask what questions they want to ask. As our contemporary says, Mr. Ramsbotham's obvious enjoyment of the experience and the competent way in which he "played up" are greatly to his credit.

The President's Broadcast.

MR. CHUTER EDE had several encouraging things to say in speeches he made during a northern tour. There were 4,609,000 elementary school children in the country, and, in spite of evacuation and the heavy bombing of certain areas, about 93 per cent of them had enrolled for full-time instruction; 190,000 were getting half-time instruction, 8,000 less than half-time, and 15,000 were receiving home tuition. Of the 413,000 secondary school children, 402,000 were getting full-time instruction, 7,500 part-time, 2,500 less than half-time, and 551 home tuition. For the fortnight ending December 6, 103 out of 317 local authorities reported no loss of time due to raid warnings, and 136 others reported losses of approximately 10 minutes a day. The highest percentage of time lost was 15. On another occasion Mr. Ede said that hitherto English education had been too much stratified into social grades and had at an early age segregated youths, giving them a narrow class outlook. The Board intended to further the Prime Minister's policy of "establishing a state of society where the advantages and privileges which hitherto have been enjoyed only by the few shall be far more widely shared by the men and youth of the nation as a whole". Opportunities for the appropriate development of as many aptitudes as possible should be afforded in the same school. Where population made the provision of a common school impossible, all forms of education for the same age range must be given equal social and educational status. The general effect of these speeches is to encourage those who hope that adequate steps are to be taken to make our educational system both more democratic and more efficient.

Mr. Ede's Speeches.

SIR CYRIL NORWOOD has contributed an interesting article to *The Fortnightly* on educational reconstruction. What we want, he says, is not merely a longer school life, but greater variety. He suggests that children, completing their course of elementary education at 11 plus, should pass into the central, the secondary, or the technical high school, and remain there until 16 plus, or, in the secondary school, until 18 plus. The curriculum during the first two years should be the same for all, with special stress upon English subjects. At 13 plus there should be a fresh sorting out based on school record and examination results. There should be continued education for all until 18 plus, then there should come, as in Germany, six months' national service in the armed forces or on the land. He rejects the suggestion that the State should take over the boarding schools which are in financial difficulty and fill them with elementary and secondary school pupils. This, as he says, would leave the surviving schools outside the national system and "in an isolation still more invidious". He thinks that the public schools should open their doors to a number of

Educational Reconstruction.

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pupils from the State schools at the age of 15½ plus, after the first two years of the secondary school course, and that the University State Scholarship scheme should be extended to apply to the schools. He condemns the present system which leaves nine out of every ten children after the age of 14 not merely without proper training, but without any training at all. We should take the ideal of equal opportunity for all " as a beacon light towards which we can shape our course ", though many generations must elapse and a great improvement in our social conditions occur before such an ideal can be realized.

The N.U.T. and Public Schools.

A PARAGRAPH in a recent issue of *The Schoolmaster* gives " a preliminary indication of the simple principles " which will govern the attitude of the National Union of Teachers towards the problem of the public schools. " It seems pretty clear that the public schools must supplement their income or go down, and they are turning with hopeful and appraising eye to the State. . . . We venture to express the friendly hope that their efforts will not be hampered by such unlucky enterprises as ' Bingham ' letters, or by other enterprises which may be construed as suggesting that the nation must look to the public schools for spiritual as well as military leadership. . . . If the public schools are coming to the State *in forma pauperis* they doubtless realize that they cannot hope to receive the public pence and at the same time retain all their private privileges. We note that the President of the Board recently enunciated a broad principle of this kind. That, however, does not remove the necessity for the closest scrutiny of concrete suggestions for any public aid decided upon. The State scholarship is one expedient finding support. Although we are open to conviction, we see many objections to this proposal, which would appear likely permanently to entrench privilege and social division within a secondary system which is crying out for national co-ordination." This preliminary reconnaissance certainly indicates some of the main points around which controversy is certain to rage.

Three Essential Conditions.

IN a later issue *The Schoolmaster* is rather more definite. After stating that local area meetings are being held, attended unofficially by representatives of public schools, local schools, local authorities, and other interests, and that recommendations are being sent to the Board of Education and other quarters, it is pointed out that the linking-up of public schools with the State system is a national and not a local matter, and that in any agreement three requirements should be satisfied. First, it should not be a piecemeal arrangement made during a time of great abnormality, but an orderly step in a comprehensive review of the secondary system as a whole. Secondly, any extension of State aid to public schools, whether by way of grants or State scholarships (for the latter are a plain subsidy), should be accompanied by a corresponding measure of public control. Thirdly, any arrangement made should be a firm one, and not capable of capricious termination by the public school concerned. In this connexion reference is made to a public school which, during the last war, sought aid to recoup its tottering finances and was placed on the grant list in return for providing a stipulated number of free places. Later, when conditions improved, the Board's grant was renounced and the free places eliminated. In venturing to prophesy that the public schools will shortly be front page news, *The Schoolmaster* is probably not far wrong.

More Boarding Schools ?

DR. DAVID, the Bishop of Liverpool and formerly Headmaster of Rugby, writing in *The Evening News*, said that the public schools had evolved methods and created an atmosphere which gave a better chance than could be found in any other type of school of developing natural gifts of leadership. He claimed for them no monopoly in this respect, but thought such influences were at their strongest in a boarding school. These should be brought within the reach of boys at our senior elementary schools, who should be selected not by examination but on their school record. There would be room for some of these in existing public schools, but on one condition only—the life of the public schools must be simplified and their cost lowered. In any case, their fees were already too high for parents of moderate means, and, unless they were reduced, the schools would lose just that type of boy through whom their best traditions were established and without whom they could not be maintained. Even if every existing public school took its share of such pupils, many new schools would be needed. He thought that some of the larger country houses which, like some of the public schools themselves, were threatened with extinction, might be utilized for this purpose, and so provide a lasting memorial to the soldiers and civilians who have died to clear the way for a disciplined and purposeful democracy.

The Boarding School v. The Day School.

IT seems clear that life in a boarding school is likely to exercise a stronger influence over the developing personality than life in a day school. Therefore, it is argued, it is to the boarding school that we must look for the production of our future leaders. The problem is not so simple as this line of argument makes it appear. It is at least equally clear that a monastic or conventual institution, which removed children altogether from their homes during adolescence, would exercise a still stronger influence over them. It might be argued, therefore, that schools for leaders should be arranged on these lines rather than on those of the ordinary boarding school, though in this country few people would be prepared to carry the argument quite so far as this. The real question at issue is not whether the boarding school has a greater influence over character than the day school, but whether the removal of children for the greater part of their adolescent life from home influences to a boarding school gives them a better chance of developing a full and balanced personality than the combined influences of day school and home. The advocates of the boarding

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school seem, sometimes, to forget the profound influence which family life exercises over the growing boy and girl. It we believed all that is said in sermons and speech-day addresses in praise of the family as the foundation of a healthy national life, should we be quite so ready to admit the educational preeminence of the boarding school?

Teachers' Salaries.

THE award last November of a bonus of 6 per cent on all teachers' salaries below £260 has not satisfied the claims of the teachers' representatives. They are now advocating a bonus to be paid to every teacher of every grade, irrespective of the amount of his salary. What they advocate is 'in short' the grant of a bonus on the first £260 of a teacher's salary. The Burnham Committees are to meet to consider this request. Curiously enough it has been put forward at a time when the committees have also to consider the failure of a minority of local education authorities to adopt the existing bonus. Some other local education authorities have made variations in the recommendation—either by deferring its application or even in a few cases by granting a higher bonus on a level with that claimed by the local government officials. The Burnham Committees may have to express disapproval of this action as well as that of the recalcitrant local education authorities, since it is contrary to the agreed recommendations of the committee. As for the claim for a bonus to all teachers no doubt the Treasury will have something to say, but the claim is not an unreasonable one in these times of increasing taxation and higher prices.

Family Allowances.

BIRMINGHAM University has recently increased the salaries of its teaching staff. In these days of rising prices this is not unusual: what is noteworthy is the method by which the increase is given, *viz.* by family allowances. We hazard the guess that much more will soon be heard of family allowances as an auxiliary method of salary payments. It is not impossible that the Burnham Committees may eventually have to consider the subject. There is sound sense in distinguishing between the commitments of married and single persons when salaries are raised, and this applies with special force to married men with children. While the cost of the education and upbringing of children is far outweighed by the happiness which family life brings, it is only fair that there should be some adjustment of the unequal financial burdens borne by the married man and the bachelor. We do not know of a fairer system for this purpose than that of family allowances, and the example of Birmingham University deserves to be widely followed.

Earlier Recruiting.

THE proposal to register men of 19 for military service is a bolt from the blue, even though it may not affect many of those at present studying in our universities and colleges. As *The Oxford Magazine* suggests, there is bound to be " some reorientation and adjustment ". Younger boys in planning their futures will be affected, and there may be a tendency to leave school earlier. In the Four Years' War, many boys of 18 served abroad as officers. Wisely, such sacrifices were not demanded at the beginning of the present war. Home defence is a special problem. Bothered like the Irishman by lack of preliminary information, especially as to the number and disposition of our troops, we are unable to offer any constructive suggestions. It is satisfactory to know that the claims of university and technical students will be considered sympathetically and that as many as possible will be allowed to complete their courses, especially those receiving training in the Officers' Training Corps or the Air Training Corps. The Royal Air Force will take a big draft of our youth until victory is assured, and new opportunities of service are continually being offered to young women.

Good Out of Evil.

THE report of the committee appointed by the Government last November to inquire into the welfare of evacuated and homeless persons in reception areas almost makes cheerful reading, so striking is the tribute paid to the general success of the scheme. The magnitude of the problem may be estimated by the fact that in the seventeen counties visited the population rose, as the result of the scheme, by 25 per cent. The committee found that on the whole the evacuation of unaccompanied children was carried out successfully, and with the minimum of friction. The work done by hostesses in caring for the children is reported to be worthy of the highest praise. According to the report, it is in the reception of mothers with their children that problems chiefly arise, though even here a new spirit is said to be developing. The recommendations of the committee relate mostly to this part of their inquiry. It is interesting to find that the provincial press has helped greatly by impressing upon householders the importance of their war contribution. The whole report confirms our conviction that the evacuation scheme is destined to influence profoundly—and ultimately for the better—the social life of this country.

The School Shelters Grant.

IT is good news that the Board of Education have now decided to pay 100 per cent grant on expenditure incurred by local education authorities on the construction and equipment of school shelters. But the strange condition is attached " under contracts entered into on or after 19th October last ". This decision, as many local authorities are pointing out, penalizes those good authorities who undertook the work before that date. A typical example is Bristol, where Mr. F. C. Williams, the Vice-Chairman of the Education Committee, is reported to have said that it involved gross injustice to the good authorities. It is indeed strange that Bristol, a city which got on with the job, should receive only a 50 per cent grant. Sunderland, a town which stands to lose £30,621 in grants by the decision, is also protesting. There seems to be so little common sense in fixing this date that we hope to see it abandoned with the minimum of delay. Otherwise the flagrant unfairness of the decision is bound to cause trouble.

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RELIGIOUS EDUCATION: THE BASIS OF AGREEMENT

By THE RIGHT REV. C. M. BLAGDEN, D.D., Bishop of Peterborough

THE problem of religious education seems always to be with us. It has long confronted those who are concerned for the welfare of their people, and it presents itself in varying shapes to successive generations. But at this moment it claims such interest and attention as have rarely been given to it. On the one hand, we have been horrified to discover that the nations which have shown least regard either to the value of human life and personality, or to the sacredness of international obligations, are in fact those nations which have discarded, or are in process of discarding, the faith and worship of the Christian Church. And, on the other, we have been steadily learning a fact which many of us had long suspected—that in our own country, where there has been no such open repudiation of Christian authority, there is a deep and, we fear, steadily increasing ignorance of our religion and its teaching and its relevance to human life. War has lit up the stage with peculiar brilliancy. It has put questions for which we are expected to provide Christian answers. We are asked what the Church has to say on this and that and the other. And quite rightly. We have made claims for the Church which we must be ready to substantiate, and we cannot complain if we are taken at our word.

At the outset we must guard against a misunderstanding. It is quite true that war has shed a searching light on the deficiencies of our Christian education, and that many of us dread the consequences which flow from ignorance or rejection of our faith. But we must not think only of results. The real reason why we want the faith to be taught is, not because it will pay us a dividend, but because it is true: the real reason why we want the Christian life to be lived is, not because disaster follows if we do not live it, but because it is the proper life for man. Doubtless highly important consequences will issue from Christian teaching when well learnt and well followed, but for us as educationists the supreme duty is to present truth to others. We believe that as Christians we are in possession of a body of truth so indispensable that it must not be kept to ourselves, but must be made available for all whose education is to be complete. That is why the Christian teacher cannot help being a propagandist. Other subjects in the curriculum may have to be left out or passed lightly over: the Christian faith is a subject which must find a place in any scheme which aims at educating the whole man.

I believe that to-day there is larger agreement on this point than there has ever been in my lifetime. More people are more eager for the faith of our Lord Jesus Christ to be taught fully and with conviction to those whose training is a national responsibility, and there is welcome evidence, from many quarters, of a keener desire to know and, if possible, to accept what the Church has to teach. If these results have been in any way increased by war, we must indeed be glad that such good has come out of evil, but we must also recognize that we have here a further reason for not delaying to make our schemes of education more Christian than they are. The tide is with us now. Emotions have been deeply stirred. Letters to *The Times* and articles in periodicals show us how old antagonisms are being laid aside. But there is the fear that, as soon as this tyranny is overpast, we may be inclined to leave things alone, and forget that once we thought the training of our children in true religion to be the most urgent and vital preoccupation of our time. Where there is so much goodwill and agreement already, it would be a tragedy to lose it. Others may find it their business to discuss what legislative changes would be desirable, or what administrative action might be taken by the Board of Education or local education authorities, in order to give full effect to the purpose which we have before us. I am concerned only to set out what I believe to be the belief of all Christian people, and to provide, in the briefest outline, something which may serve as a basis for the education of our children. If we are to teach them to be Christians, there are certain truths which we must put in the forefront of our teaching, and without them no scheme of religious instruction can be reckoned as worthy of the name. It will always be difficult to make a satisfactory syllabus, but no syllabus can be acceptable which is not based on these essential principles.

The starting point must be our belief in God. That sounds a truism, but the importance of it becomes more evident every day. Many who call themselves Christians have no such settled belief, and the consequence is that, when trouble and suffering come, "immediately they are offended". How a teacher will begin with his pupils is for him to determine, but he himself must be sure about God in his own mind, and leave no doubt in theirs. Philosophical arguments which may have fortified him will figure very little in his teaching: what is asked of him is that he shall express his own convictions and show to what they have led him. The God whom he will wish to make known to others must not be an abstraction or a force or a law, but a Person, alive and good, who has dealings with men, and with whom men can stand in a personal relation. It is this teaching which will provide the antidote to many of our present discontents. The chief reason why so many profess a disbelief in God is because, when faced with trouble or pain, they cannot see any proof that He is loving or just or even interested in their case. In the end they can find this out only by their own experience, but they can be started on the path of discovery by others, who, taking the lessons of history, find in them a plain indication of the care and love of God, who delights in good and hates evil, who is concerned in all the fortunes of mankind, who has a purpose for the world, and who guides it steadily to the end which He has set before it.

This is why the Bible is still of supreme value in education. We say that our religion is a historical religion, not the baseless fabric of a vision seen by mystics and philosophers, but a stronghold built upon the bedrock of fact. The Bible enshrines the fact for us, in the sense not simply that it contains the story of the founding of the Christian Church, but also that it gives us the picture of the way in which, through the ages, God gradually revealed Himself to men and led them to understand Him, making known His character and ways and purposes "by divers portions and divers manners" until the times were ripe for the fuller revelation of Himself in Jesus Christ. So far is the Bible from being obsolete as a subject of Christian study that it is still the one essential text-book, which contains the title-deeds of our religion. But it must be studied with understanding as well as with reverence. It will not yield up its secret if it is treated only as literature, or if it is read through without comment or criticism, or if every book in it is regarded as of equal value, and every passage as charged with a message of the same divine significance. Simple Bible teaching requires much labour and careful interpretation. And, happily for us, the work of scholars for the past sixty years has made our task much easier. Of course we can all poke fun at the critics and laugh at their differences of opinion. But the fact remains that there is now a wonderful consensus of view about so many points which used to be in dispute—say, the date, composition, and meaning of the books of the Old Testament, the relation of the first three Gospels to one another, the genuineness of the Epistles of St. Paul, and the historical value of the Acts of the Apostles. Good commentaries are cheap and easy to come by: we have no excuse for not knowing

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what the Scriptures mean, even if we are unfamiliar with their original language. There is probably no subject in which the teacher has so much to help him if only he is willing to be helped.

So, with all this to guide us, we are able to gain a glimpse of the working of God in history. We watch His ways with men, we grasp something of His purpose, and we see His character gradually being unfolded to the nation whom He chose specially to receive His revelation. And then comes the climax. Jesus our Lord is born into the world. Men behold His glory, the glory of the only begotten of the Father, but they also behold the true humanity of the Son of Man. The figure of Jesus Christ must always be for the teacher an inexhaustible source of inspiration. On the one hand, He shows Himself as the answer to the perennial question " What is God like ? " Things which we can only partly imagine of ourselves, or only dimly derive from the evidence of history and the witness of Scripture, now grow clear to us. God lives, God loves, God works, God cares—all this is made plain to us in the Gospels, alike by the action and the teaching of the Saviour. And, on the other hand, we are left in no doubt as to the possibilities of man and the true development of his character. Jesus is one of us, and, though we know Him to be infinitely above us, we know too that the standard which He sets us is not unattainable by the human race. The Sermon on the Mount is not the whole of His message, but it enshrines principles of conduct which have not been fully worked out even yet.

One of the difficulties which face us teachers is that so many people in our generation admit no moral imperative. They do not find themselves constrained by any force, outside their own desires, to do the things which we believe to be right and good, and wonder is often felt that the Christian seems to possess no code of rules of absolutely binding authority. Those who study the teaching of our Lord know well that He did not issue to His disciples a new decalogue. But He did something much greater than this. Taking the old Commandments, He showed how they could be interpreted by men and women of a later age ; and by the gift of the Holy Spirit, promised to His followers and continually renewed to them and to those who came after them, He built up a new community, in which His example might be so followed and His teaching so applied, that its members should attain to newness of life and feel for certain that He still lived in them. From this community there came the Christian civilization which we have inherited. Steadily it has been developed and extended, affecting even quarters of the world which have never received the Christian message and individuals who have not believed it. The moral code which it has taught and the moral standards which it has upheld have increasingly approved themselves to the conscience of mankind. They may be challenged, and perhaps by some repudiated, now ; but they are regarded by the greater part of the world as of permanent obligation—not an arbitrary convention, but a necessity for the children of God. This, we believe, is the work of the Holy Spirit, still active in the Church as on the Day of Pentecost.

Here we have the outline of a teaching which all of us Christians ought to be able to make our own. It embodies a faith held by the whole Christian Church. Yet by itself it is nothing like enough. Our hope for those whom we teach is that they should lead Christian lives, putting into practice the lessons which they have learnt, and helping to make the world better because they have had their home there. They cannot do this by themselves : they need the grace of God, which is given to those who seek it. We must help them to seek it, and we do so by training them in worship. This is a vital part of religious education, and ought never to be left out or treated as of secondary interest. It is just as important as the work of instruction ; indeed, it is its necessary accompaniment, for it is of little use to teach children that God loves and cares for them, unless we also train them in the right approach to Him. Until we give worship its proper place in our schemes, we shall not make that progress in education which we all desire to see.

From this a very notable consequence follows. " The Church ", says Dr. Barry, " is a community of worshippers, and the worship of God is its primary concern." If that be so, then our insistence on the necessity of worship becomes an argument for taking membership of the Church seriously. In our effort to make children good Christians we must not behave as if the Church were an afterthought or an irrelevance. On the contrary, it is the society in which the worship of God is to be perfected and the Christian life lived, and to imagine that one can be fully a Christian, and yet contract out of the society to which that worship and that life belong, is to cherish an illusion. The pupils of a school may come from different branches of the Church of Christ, or not yet be members of any branch at all. The former should be trained to value their membership : the latter, if they are allowed to attend the religious lesson, should learn from the outset that Christian belief and Church membership go together.

The privilege of belonging to such a community is, as I have tried to show, a strong moral safeguard. It at once supplies the stimulus to right action, and also furnishes the imperative, the compelling force, the obligation which, in the field of conduct, so many of us need. To remain faithful to one's membership is continually to be reminded of one's duty. Within the community the member is inspired by the teaching of the Church, practises himself in the art of worship, and receives those opportunities through which the gifts of the Spirit become available for men. And the fact that there are other members of the community all round him is a constant source of help. He finds them meeting the same problems, facing the same difficulties, and reinforced by the same strength. By their companionship and example he is aided to lead the Christian life.

WHY TEACH SCRIPTURE?

By S. REED BRETT, M.A., Second Master and Chief History Master, King Edward VI School, Nuneaton

TWO years ago the writer opened the first Scripture lesson of a new fifth form with the question : " Well, do you think it is going to be worth while to spend a period a week this year on Scripture ? " The question was met by stony silence until one boy, to the relief of the rest of the form and to the master's delight, quietly answered : " No, sir." When asked for a reason he added, quite naturally, " We've got to pass the exam. at the end of the year, and we can't afford to spend time on a subject that we don't take in the exam." He got a new point of view when the master asked : " Don't you think that may be an excellent reason for studying Scripture ? You will spend thirty-five periods a week tied down to an exam.-syllabus. Surely it is a good thing to spend one lesson a week with no syllabus except the one we choose to make for ourselves."

The boy was presenting the utilitarian view of education which, during the greater part of a century, has prevailed in educational practice. It is in essence the theory of " payment by results ". But we are justified in asking : " Which results ? " The claim can hardly be made that the state of society, domestic or international, is an encouraging comment on the results of education upon the present and the past generations.

Perhaps the best reason for Scripture-teaching is that without it the pupils now passing through our schools

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would be in imminent danger of growing up as pagans. The vast majority of them are not sent to Sunday School or taken to Church with any regularity, nor do they see or hear the Bible read in their homes. The rush of modern life has had the same effect on their parents as the examination threatened to have on the fifth-form boy: it has pushed religion out of their lives. Whatever our individual opinion about what is known as "organized religion", as exemplified during the present generation and its predecessor, few will doubt that the coming of a thoroughly pagan generation would result in a decline in moral standard and stamina. Whether we like it or not, the English character is what it is largely because of its strong Puritan element. Is it unreasonable to see in this element the source of the power which has enabled Britain to continue undaunted the struggle against a ruthless enemy after others have collapsed? The teachers of the next generation of English men and women can scarcely have a task more worth while or urgent than that of helping to develop the conviction that religion is the only sure foundation for the life of individuals and nations alike.

In Scripture, as in every other subject, the "why" of teaching has an intimate connexion with the "how" of teaching it. The necessity of fostering the religious element in character and in thinking must not lead us to substitute teaching about religion for the teaching of religion. There is only one sure way to achieve our purpose, and that is to teach the Bible. Experience shows that to place the Bible narratives in their historical and literary perspective is to awaken genuine interest among pupils of all types and with only the rarest exceptions. This is true of almost any book in the Bible. A sixth form can usually be allowed its own choice: as a result, last year the writer had the singular experience of reading Genesis and Revelation in alternate periods with the same sixth form! As though to find a half-way house between them, the same Form elected to spend the Scripture periods of the last term of the year in reading the Book of Job!

There are, of course, incidental results from Scripture-teaching based upon the Bible. Regarded as history the Old Testament especially is of great value. As literature the English Authorized Version, both in its own style and in the content of the books of which it is a translation, is matchless. Nevertheless such aspects of the work must always be kept as subsidiary to the main purpose of studying the Bible as the supreme expression of inspired religion.

A few years ago the writer acceded to his headmaster's request to become responsible for the school's Scripture-teaching. For many reasons the consent was given with great reluctance. But the experience of the years has led to the unreserved conclusion that no other part of the curriculum is so fruitful and none demands more exacting preparation by the teacher. This is at least one teacher's answer to the question: "Why teach Scripture?"

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE NATION

PART I

By Professor F. CLARKE, Director of the University of London Institute of Education

TO sum up adequately a discussion so many-sided on an issue of such complexity is, I must confess at once, quite beyond me. That is partly my fault but it is due in part also to the character of the discussion itself. One is left with a feeling of frustration, a sense that the real issue has not yet defined itself with sufficient clearness. After another year or two of increasing pressure within and without causing further dispersal of illusions, we may be more ready for the much bolder and more clear-cut thinking which, I strongly suspect, will be demanded of us. In the meantime, we tend to flounder and evade, not yet fully conscious of the influences that shape our interim ideas. In such conditions, undeclared social or personal interest can easily assume the dress of disinterested educational principle: ignorances can look like virtues, and tenacious holding-on to privilege can give us all the self-approving glow of faithfulness to principles. Inhibitions of many kinds, operating more or less unconsciously, but usually in close alliance with our traditions and our interests, may even lead us to talk nonsense ("Instruction v. Character-training", for instance) which we should recognize for what it is if we were free from such influence: and sheer timidity is still all too apparent.

Obviously, the purging process has much farther to go yet, and one could have wished that, on the public school side at least, it had set in twenty years earlier when motives would have been much less liable to suspicion.

The best service I can hope to do, therefore, is to assist the purging as well as I can. The process cannot be other than painful, and if, in this contribution, I should seem to be critical more especially of the attitude taken up by the defenders of the public schools, the reason is plain. There really is something of great value to be defended; but, if that something is wrongly understood, if the motives of the defenders are not purged of impurities by rigorous self-examination, if the weapons are of false metal, and if the wrong battle-ground is chosen, then the real citadel is lost. If lost it is, confusion and cross-purposes among the defenders may be even more to blame than blindness to values in the attackers. The tutelary goddess of the public schools speaks, no doubt, in Latin. More than once, in reading some contributions to this discussion, I could imagine I heard her whisper: *Non tali auxilio, nec defensoribus istis.*

What is it that we have to defend? That is the first thing to define. Dr. Happold, in a laudable effort at clarity, tells us: "Either the public schools are privileged preserves . . . or they are repositories of an educational tradition." Here is disastrous confusion at the very outset. There is no 'either—or' about it. The essence of the problem consists in the fact that the schools are both these things, and the first task is an honest and resolute effort to disentangle the pure educational virtue from that accretion of privilege which no one now denies. Having done that, we proceed to the second task; the reinterpretation of a tradition thus cleansed in terms of the whole vast scale of a modern industrialized democracy. Can the tradition persist in its claim to be 'national' unless it thus communicates itself to the whole, undergoing inevitable transformation in the process?

I doubt whether any one can as yet foresee precisely how this is to take place. For the ultimate form in which the public-school virtues will continue to live in the body of national education must be determined now not by the content of tradition alone, but by the needs and values and structure of a changed national order, the lineaments of which we can as yet descry but dimly. Not so long ago, I thought that some comparatively mild readaptation such as Sir Frank Fletcher seems to think possible and sufficient (which, if the dose were a little stronger, even Mr. Douie would apparently be ready to accept) might meet the need. But I don't think so now. The real force and extent of the coming change are already too apparent.

Since, then, the time for a blue-print has not arrived—if it ever does—the best thing we can do is to go on with the process of enlarging and purifying our own ideas. In doing

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so, we shall need not only to attend more closely to the shape of things to come than to the sentimental attachments of a vanishing past, but also to improve enormously our own critical equipment. There is no greater danger now than a well-meaning amateurism, and one of the things to be got rid of without delay is the curious (and now disastrous) idea that, however it may be with doctors and engineers, it is somehow banausic and ungentlemanly for schoolmasters to be too obviously professional. Under that influence, vehemence of assertion comes to supply the deficiencies of trained insight and the reiteration of questionable platitude takes the place of critical professional understanding.

No one, surely, can read through all the contributions to this discussion without finding all too many examples of what I mean. I have already referred to the confusing of true educational virtues with the accidents of privilege, of 'training for leadership' with the exploitation of social monopoly.

One finds also in many places quite inadequate appreciation of the grim facts of the actual contemporary situation; of the serious social mischief now being caused by claims on behalf of the public schools, of the rising spirit of resentment, and of the real extent of the change of heart and outlook that must take place. One finds, also, some disquieting evidence of lack of knowledge of the State educational system (one must not say 'public' in England) through which the vast mass of the people of England pass. How can the reinterpretation take place intelligently and fruitfully if this ignorance continues?

One finds, too, the most surprising *simplicitas* in many of the assertions that are put forward as justifying principles. Often they are amateurish and uncritical to a degree that would shock us if their analogues appeared as defences of practice in some other profession. The same applies to a good many of the appeals to history that are made.

I trust, therefore, that I shall not be thought arrogant if I devote the rest of this wholly inadequate survey to a few suggestions of directions in which we might do well to improve our critical equipment. For, unless we are to take hopeless refuge in uncriticized dogma, we shall all alike need some improvement of armoury.

1. Let us press on with the stern task of distinguishing the permanent and genuine *educational* values of the public-school system from the accidents of privilege, now so harmful. The need for an effort may be illustrated by a couple of sentences taken from one of the contributions to the discussion:

"It has been said that the secondary schools have not produced leaders in the various departments of our national life. If that is so, it is because the nation has been content to regard the schools as 'teaching shops', to provide instruction rather than training."

Leaving aside two questions, that of fact and that of the meaning we are to attach to "teaching shop", we may well express surprise that the author of this dictum should have overlooked completely just the *social* factors that, in this matter, are so important. (*a*) The very short history of the secondary schools. (*b*) The enormous *social* advantage that the public-school headmaster has in *placing* his ex-pupils for 'leadership' whatever their training may have been.

What we badly need is substantial agreement between the friends and the critics of the public schools on a separation of the claims on behalf of the schools into two columns, one headed "True Educational Virtues" and the other, "Perquisites of Privilege". The effect of that would be to dissipate much of the fog that now so darkens counsel.

2. Let us, with similar honesty and severity of self-examination, reconsider all our ideas of what we are to mean by 'teaching'. Here I will take two examples.

(*a*) In aphoristic mood, Sir Frank Fletcher declares:

"It (the public school) is essentially a community, not merely a teaching-shop."

When the decorous applause of the Speech-day audience has subsided, we may ask what the aphorism means. We may then discover that "essentially", *i.e.* as the only justification of its existence, any school worthy of the name exists primarily as a teaching-shop. Of course, any chance collection of English folk, young and old, who meet together regularly for some specific purpose, will soon form themselves into a community. That is their way, public school or no public school. Then, when you have your community, you can do some useful things with it if you know how.

But what is the purpose that brings the school community together if not teaching? Consider, then, what this function of teaching involves in the conditions of to-day. Skilled specialists, suitably planned buildings, much apparatus, efficient organization, and the maintenance of a steady routine; attributes strangely like those of a large workshop or factory. So it would seem that a school which fails in efficiency as a teaching-shop fails as a school. Would it then still be something that can excite Sir Frank's admiration? As for a 'mere' teaching-shop, I am at a loss to know what it can mean, at any rate in English conditions.

The pervading uneasiness about teaching and teaching-shops, amounting almost to irritability, sets one wondering. Can it be that public schoolmasters dislike being regarded as teachers? If so, they should surely ask themselves why.

(*b*) Another aspect of the same puzzle is the distinction so commonly drawn between instruction (even 'mere' instruction, poor thing!) and character-training. One would have thought that instruction which failed in some essential way to influence character had failed as instruction. If so, why give it? Is the presumption that character takes care of some things in life and instruction of others? If so, could anything be worse for real integrity of self and society?

Fortunately, practice is better than so uncritical a theory would suggest, or we should have much more of blind adhesion to limited codes and sheer stupid well-meaningness than is actually the case. Still, the fundamental blunder about *teaching* remains mischievous. Mr. T. C. Worsley is perhaps not wholly wrong in finding in this persistent folly the source of some, at least, of the deficiencies in our national leadership in recent years.

3. Let us learn to be far more cautious and far more regardful of the facts in appealing to history as a support for educational and pseudo-educational claims. Of the need for this I shall have to give as many as three instances:

(*a*) In a review, the manner of which must be regretted whatever may be thought of its matter, Sir Cyril Norwood dismissed somewhat contemptuously Mr. Worsley's appeal in his book to the "Franklin-Priestley" tradition. As Mr. Worsley may have taken over this unhappy name from me, it is all the more necessary that I should explain what is really meant. Sir Cyril says of it:

"These were dissenting academies with an interesting curriculum and a rather stuffy intellectual atmosphere, modern sides born before their time."

Coming from the author of *The English Tradition of Education*, this is surprising, and the reference to modern sides shows how complete is the misunderstanding.

Let us drop the unfortunate name "Franklin-Priestley" which dates the thing too narrowly. I wonder whether a force of such importance would be more recognizable if we called it the "Dissenter" tradition, or even the "Milton-Comenius" tradition?

The effect of the Reformation was to reveal rather than to create a somewhat deep cleavage in the English mind that affected many things beside religion. Views on politics, on social structure, on education, and even on economics were also involved. Though neither type of outlook could claim to be English in a superior sense, the one which we may describe roughly as "Cavalier" was nearly always dominant. Its rival triumphed for a brief space in the seventeenth century and gained much in strength in the nineteenth. But the importance of the "Dissenter" tradition for us to-day lies in the fact that it was from this source that the founders of the United States and the British Dominions drew their

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social and educational inspiration. So now some 150 millions of people in lands closely associated with our own are educated under its influence. Is it this that Sir Cyril dismisses so summarily ?

(*b*) Some revision will be necessary in the story of the services of the public schools to the Empire, as that is commonly told. There can be no doubt that, once an Empire was in being, the product of the public schools played a great part in its maintenance and defence. But two important reservations have to be made. First, that the story is as much a part of English social history at home as of imperial history abroad. Second, that a dispassionate study of the record does not support the view that the product of the public schools played any significant part in the actual *creation* of the Empire. That was the work of other and generally much humbler hands.

Incidentally, it may be remarked that the ignorance still prevailing in the schools of Empire development in the great formative age that extends from the close of the American War of Independence to the time of the Boer War, is no credit to us, particularly in view of the confident and little-contested claims that are so often made.

(*c*) The full history of English education in all the richness of its setting remains still unwritten. But we shall need the record now. In the writing of it, we shall have to pay special regard to those factors in the national life, cultural, economic, religious, and what-not, of which any particular institution was the expression. This applies especially to the history of the public schools, not all of which is educational in the narrow sense.

May I add that in this connexion I found the contributions by Dr. Derry and Mr. Walton particularly suggestive ?

4. Let us make every effort to widen the scope of our thinking and our sympathies so as to achieve a more adequate vision of what can be meant by " England " and its possibilities. ' Sociology ' is, no doubt, a horrid hybrid of a word, but the thing it stands for has now become important for us. ' Left ' and ' right ' alike seem to need the discipline of quiet and unprejudiced study of the actual facts. Then we might hope to be freed from the tyranny of neat formularies, of inherited platitude, and of the multifarious idolatries that we mistake so easily for consistency.

5. Finally, and for the same reason, let us be on our guard against that over-ready *sniff of contempt* which is heard all too often in the discussion here reviewed. When we feel it rising within us, we shall do well to ask ourselves first, what is its real object, and secondly, what are its origins.

As for its object, one can only hope that this is not ' teaching ' and ' teachers ' whether in a teaching-shop or not. As for its sources, let us be sure whether these are to be found on the heights of wisdom or in the depths of ignorance.

Whatever the truth may be, let us be on our guard against a gesture which is all too common, often very little justified, and always likely to do harm.

Since a professor of education of some years' standing is himself apt to become hardened in examination sin, and so to regard an examination paper as a clarifying instrument, it has occurred to me to draft a few questions that seem relevant to some of these issues. The paper might perhaps be regarded as a rough qualifying test for all who would serve not only as defenders of the public schools but also as workers in any trusted capacity in the field of English education.

If this seems arrogant, let me say that I could not hope to give satisfactory answers to my own questions. Indeed, I suspect that any such happy result could come only from wide, concerted efforts in which many will participate.

But we may as well begin with ourselves, and my hope is that a question paper so framed may do just a little towards clearing up the rather dense fog that arises, apparently, from historical deposits over-moistened by personal and sectional interests and insufficiently dried by the steady currents of a robust criticism.

The paper is appended.

EXAMINATION PAPER

All questions should be attempted. A month is allowed for questions 1–7. No time-limit on the other two.

1. Define as precisely as you can your conception of (*a*) teaching ; (*b*) a teaching-shop.
   In the latter case distinguish clearly the Bond Street from the Woolworth type.
2. In your view, what elements enter into " Character " as a goal of education ? Show (if you can) that Instruction must necessarily be either (*a*) hostile, or (*b*) neutral, towards the processes by which character is formed. Deduce the consequences of this conclusion.
3. Account concisely for the difference between :
   (*a*) A public schoolmaster ; (*b*) a school teacher.
   What is the educational significance (if any) of these differences ?
4. Explain the word " secondary " :
   (*a*) In its full educational significance ; (*b*) in terms of your own customary usage. (The Spens Report may be quoted wherever apposite.)
5. Estimate the differential advantages of situation, social and other, in the matter of finding careers and " openings for leadership " for ex-pupils, as between :
   (*a*) The headmaster of Eton.
   (*b*) The headmaster of the County Secondary School (Mixed), at Great Puddleton, Wheatshire.
6. How many traditions of English education are there ? Which be they ?
   (*Note.*—In answering this question, candidates are advised to keep in mind any distinction there may be between education and the practices peculiar to any particular type of school.)
7. Draw up a short list of features and movements in English education that excite in you a sniff of contempt. Explain the origins of this sniff in each case and show how you would justify it.
   (Candidates need not necessarily avoid repetition of points made in previous answers.)

The following two questions may be answered at leisure. No limit is set to the amount of time that may be taken for them.

1. Trace, in some detail, the history of any English school with which you are acquainted, disregarding, as far as possible, administrative and official aspects, and concentrating upon the relation of the school and its work to social, economic, and cultural changes both in England generally and in the neighbourhood of the school in particular (so far as these latter concern the school at all).
   N.B.—Illustrations from the personal histories of selected pupils of the school will add value to the answer.
2. Do you consider that a satisfactory history of English education has yet been written ? If so, justify your opinion. If not, state fully the conditions which in your opinion must be fulfilled, if such a history is to be satisfactorily worked out, and mention any influences which, in your view, hinder the fulfilment of these conditions.

(*To be concluded*)

The April number of *The Journal of Education*
will include:

A final article by Prof. F. Clarke, Director of the University of London Institute of Education, summing up the controversy on the Future of the Public Schools.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AFTER THE WAR. By John Wilkes, Warden of Radley College.

PLANNING AND EDUCATION. By Dr. H. G. Stead, Education Officer, Chesterfield Education Committee.

THE TEACHING OF FRENCH. By L. E. Genissieux, Acting-Director, Institut Français du Royaume-Uni.

THE TEACHING LIFE—III. RESURRECTION OF THE DEAD. By " Martha Moss ".

THE AIR TRAINING CORPS. By J. F. Wolfenden, Headmaster of Uppingham, and Director of Pre-entry Training.

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IN THE CLASS-ROOM

By VERNON MALLINSON, Senior Modern Language Master, Loughborough Grammar School

VII.—THE MIDDLE SCHOOL

THE occasions on which I have administered corporal punishment are rare but memorable; and I should think that I have as much experience of Middle-School work as most schoolmasters of ten years' standing. What am I getting at? Simply that so many schoolmasters—and particularly in big city schools—faced with a dreary prospect of handling gangs of louts and rowdies, who have drifted into the Removes and the Middle-School B and C forms and are destined to languish there for the remainder of their school life, resign themselves to what they term the inevitable and cease all pretence at doing a satisfactory job of work. The golden rule laid down by these task-masters never varies; keep the lads quiet at all costs, give up hope of teaching them anything important, and, once having secured a healthy (?) discipline, set out your stall to amuse. My meek contention is that such a policy is the ideal one for confounding your own aim—which should be that of turning out useful and self-disciplined citizens even if the intelligence be not of a high order.

Now for heaven's sake don't think of me as a faddist or as one of the more progressive moderns who bow down in worship of A. S. Neill, shall we say. I am capable of giving as sound a thrashing as any one, if the occasion should arise; but I neither look for nor make the occasion. If I must punish then the punishment is severe but just. I never punish out of pique or spite; I recognize that corporal punishment is more degrading to me than to the culprit. I am quick to forgive and ready to apologize for any injustice, however slight or unimportant in my own eyes. The result of all these elementary precautions is that only the really 'bad egg' ever suffers, and he is so infrequent in his appearance as to be almost negligible.

But a more important result still is that my colleagues who think with me find that life in the Middle School can be exciting, real, and progressive. Many Middle-School masters rarely stop to consider why a boy should be dull, stupid, indolent, or untameable; they start with that as a premise and all their early well-meaning efforts are as a result confounded and doomed to failure. Very early in my career—during my student-teaching days in fact—I made my most important discovery. I was fortunate enough to secure a teaching appointment several months before I was due to leave the university. As my Head wished me to teach quite a lot of history in addition to language work, he wrote to the Head of the school in which my practice was done and asked that I be given an opportunity to teach history. I was given IVd, Lower Remove C, and Upper Vc. Upper Vc had a most unsavoury reputation and the master handing over to me grinned sympathetically and pushed a long window-pole into my hand. "Use this", he said; "prod them frequently and sit hard on the biggest lout you have". I entered my first class nervously, trembling so much that the unusual weapon I carried slipped from my hand and clattered to the floor. A laugh went up and one cheeky imp slipped from his place and politely handed me back the pole. I lost my temper and blindly remembering the advice to "sit hard on the biggest lout you have" dashed for the obvious ringleader who was sitting quietly in his place. Hubbub, consternation and sudden quiet. I felt a cad. Calling the ringleader to my desk I quietly handed him the pole and told him to take it back to its owner. When he returned I apologized and offered him my hand. He grinned, amazedly at first, and with a "that's all right, sir," sat down and set to work. I still flatter myself that I taught those lads more history in two months than they had learned all the year. And when I left they shyly made me a presentation from "Twenty-two drivelling idiots who hope they didn't let you down too badly at the inspection". They didn't.

All my teaching in the Middle School has been based on that early experience. I learned to treat the not-so-bright as highly capable within their own limitations; to earn their respect by the simple process of daily increasing their own self-respect; to avoid above all sarcastic comment on their paucity of wit or lack of nous. (Your sarcastic school-master is a bully and a sadist to boot; he deserves all the ragging he can get. Unfortunately in this unjust world, he usually has the whip-hand over his classes.) I learned to spur on the really lazy and indolent, as opposed to the not-so-bright, by a pleasant severity and an insistence on close and accurate application to the small amount of real work I expected. I introduced a spirit of bonhomie and even of levity and good-natured ragging into my forms, and, over ten years seem to have invented a Middle-School jargon that is handed on from year to year and that enables me to get really annoyed when occasion arises without either losing my self-respect or causing an aftermath of unpleasant-ness, sulks or hurt feelings. I learned, too, in my contacts, not to place too high a value on intellectual achievement alone and to value for its own sake the initiative, energy and impish waywardness of the young cubs I taught.

In a word, then, when you have built up a healthy self-respect in the Middle School, discipline will follow naturally and all the misplaced energy and enthusiasm can be usefully canalized and turned to some other good purpose than the mere goal of a good School Certificate. Where so many Middle-School masters fail is in their inability to realize that nothing is worth doing unless it is done well—even ragging—and as a result their periods with the B and C forms in the Middle School degenerate into an organized waste of time. Organized, I mean, from the point of view of the master who groans every time he has to visit the 'duds', and disciplines and regiments them so that they become a flock of aimless sheep, going nowhere, getting nowhere, dissatisfied and often painfully conscious of their own shortcomings and stubbornly opposed to a régime catering only for the greater comfort of the sworn enemy, the heedless and uncomprehending member of the staff.

Your really conscientious schoolmaster will either make pathetic efforts at intellectual grind far beyond the scope of the majority, and become dispirited and discouraged, or treat the form as a tribe of "nitwits" from the start and seek only to amuse. Either way is equally harmful. Respect the modicum of intelligence with which you have to work, overcome initial disciplinary difficulties by a pleasant but firm insistence on the value of co-operative effort and the pleasure that comes from a good job well done, and you will be turning out a useful and fully educated citizen. I run quite a popular Cercle Français in my own school, and I am repeatedly amazed at the response I get from B and C forms. Their French may be atrocious, judging it by the norm, but what they lack in scholarship they more than make up in enthusiasm and in originality of ideas. God forbid that I should ever be accused of turning out a drab and monotonous succession of French scholars! Four or five a year is all I want, and I don't want those if they are to be merely bookish and blasé and boring into the bargain.

For all these reasons I must rightly consider Middle-School work as more important even than that done in the sixth form. I must be careful that masters in charge of Middle-School work are fully capable in my sense of the word. I must spend as much time as possible myself in the Middle School. That is why my newly-fledged schoolmaster comes to the Middle School last of all and why it is forbidden territory for the mere intellectual on the staff; his place

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is with the sixth and the A Certificate form. That, too, is why I hope many headmasters, when staff complain of the low intellectual achievement of several boys in a school, with a recommendation that they be pushed out, will say what the Head of —— once smartly retorted :

" I hope that I may never be responsible for producing a mere intellectual ! As long as my dullards learn to make some contribution, even if it be only on the sports field, then I am more than satisfied. Prove to me that a boy is a genuine waster, and I'll get rid of him."

I reserve discussion of the " bright " adolescent to a future article.

TEACHING ON THE SOIL AS A FOUNDATION FOR HUMAN GEOGRAPHY

PART I.—THE SOIL

By MARY K. HESLOP, M.Sc., Oxford Diploma in Geography, Lecturer in Geography at Kenton Lodge Training College, Newcastle-on-Tyne

IS it possible to teach subtleties ?

If it *is* possible, is it desirable ? or should subtleties remain remote and aloof, the goal and reward of individual effort, and only to be apprehended by each for himself ?

Safeguarded by the uniqueness of individual experience, all interpretation of phenomena must, in the last resort, be individual and selective. Especially in those zones of contact within the penumbra of conflicting and co-operating influences where subtleties have their home, must we allow individual minds to show their predelictions and fulfil that specialist function which, alone, in an imperfect world, justifies the bias of specialization.

There is no more subtle medium than the soil, but perhaps the best way to introduce the study of it to students, is to put before them the baldest facts, and let those who can make their own inferences.

Following this plan, let us examine a set of British maps showing (1) geology, (2) relief, (3) rainfall, (4) natural vegetation. It is evident from the first that in the west and north-west are exposed the oldest rocks—a very varied assortment of granites, volcanics, metamorphics and old sedimentaries : all *old* and *hard* ; and hard because they are old. Being hard, they have resisted denudation and are consequently *high* (map 2). Being high, and situated on the west of a country with prevailing westerly winds, these regions are *wet* (map 3). The vegetation map (4), shows them to be covered by " mountain and heath vegetation and rough grazing ", which extends on to the Cheviots and Pennines, and covers over 50 per cent of the surface of Northumberland. Hence, while remembering that a mantle of glacials covers Britain north of the Thames, it lies mainly on the lowlands, and we are bound to infer that the great *differences* of geological constitution shown by much of the highland, are secondary considerations in the determination of the vegetation cover—and presumably of the underlying *soil*—to the *similarities* due to *hardness, height,* and *heavy rainfall* : and such, indeed, is the case. " Vegetation ", we are told, " is the most delicate index of climatic quality ". It is no less delicate an index of soil conditions ; and the fact is now generally recognized that the great *mature* soil-groups of the world correspond closely to the chief vegetation belts, with comparatively little regard for the underlying rock.

Let us hasten to say that this is only broadly true, and that within a great vegetation formation local and minor differences of soil of great economic importance are due to different geological outcrops ; as, for example, the belted soil outcrops of Lincolnshire, and, indeed, of all eastern England from the appearance of the oolite and chalk in East Yorkshire to their disappearance in Dorset, even where, north of the Thames, glacials obscure the country rock. South of this in England, and even more so in France where the *pays* are defined by their soil character, geology is a dominant soil-control, though the whole area lies within the " west European Deciduous Forest Belt ".

Next, let us examine (i) a specimen of the most characteristic local rock (near Newcastle, this would most probably be *coal-measure sandstone*) ; (ii) a specimen of field-soil (*boulder-clay*) ; (iii) a specimen of *good garden soil.*

While it is not strictly true to say that (ii) is derived from (i), it is quite certain that (iii) is derived from (ii), *i.e.* the garden soil from the field soil. How ? By handling the specimens, we can see how the hard sandstone, rubbed and ground down to finer and finer particles, would eventually form a clay, and that the process would certainly make it a fitter habitat for the delicate roots of living plants than in its coarse state. We infer, then, that the breaking up or ' weathering ' of the country-rock is the first stage in soil formation—but it is only the first :—" water and wind sort out the particles, level and soften the soil, until it is fit for colonization by plants. These, by the binding effect of their roots, by the protection against rain and wind, and by the fertility they impart to the soil, bring denudation almost to a standstill—until eventually, an equilibrium is reached between denudation and soil-formation (which goes on very slowly at the surface of the country-rock), so that a *mature* soil preserves an almost constant depth and character, and may last indefinitely. This depth may be only a few inches or it may be several feet, *but within it lies the whole capacity of the earth to produce life ! Below that thin layer comprising the delicate organism known as the soil, is a planet as lifeless as the moon* ".[1]

Let us return to our specimens. No. (i) would give us a whole series of mineral soils according to the degree to which it was worn down : slightly worn, it would give a coarse sand ; while further weathering would give every grade to a fine clay. This is change of *texture* only ; there has been no change in chemical constitution.

Actually the mineral framework of a soil may be graded on the score of texture from *coarse* to *fine* : particles down to 2 mm., in coarse soils, usually consist of fragments of *rock* : between 2 mm. and 0·002 mm., they consist of the minerals composing the rock, while below 0·002 mm. chemicals derived from the latter begin to appear, and we speak of this very finely divided material as the " *clay-fraction* ", the most important part of the soil.

There are many reasons for this :

(i) Its remarkable power of holding water. Water, we know, covers the *surface* of soil particles ; and the finer-grained the soil is, the more surface it has. (Consider a 1-cm. cube : its surface is 6 sq. cms. Now divide it into millimeter cubes : the sum of the areas of these will be : $0{\cdot}1 \times 0{\cdot}1 \times 6 \times 1{,}000 = 60$ sq. cms.)[2]

(ii) In addition to its great capacity for holding water, finely divided material presents a great number of atoms or atomic groups at the surface where chemical reaction takes place : therefore the clay-fraction is a very active region chemically.

(iii) In intimate physical or loose chemical combination with the clay is the organic matter of the soil, the two forming the clay-humus association or *colloidal-complex.*

Plant remains are subjected to two processes, *oxidation,* which tends to destroy them setting free in the process the CO_2, which occurs so much more abundantly in soil air (1 per cent), than in the atmosphere (0·03 per cent), and is the chief source of the CO_2 used by plants : and secondly,

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humification, a process carried out in the absence of oxygen by bacterial action, which results in the stabilizing of the organic matter of the soil.

If oxidation is too rapid, the soil loses organic matter and its bacterial population decreases: if humification is too rapid, the soil becomes just an accumulation of humus, acid from the absence of lime and ultimate detachment from the mineral framework.

(iv) The organic matter of the soil is the habitat of a very active bacterial population which engages in highly important processes, notably in the fixation of nitrogen, an essential ingredient of organic life.

(v) Besides *texture*—determined by the prevailing size of particles making up the mineral framework—a *colloidal-complex*, and *bacteria*, a soil must possess certain *structural features* or " *tilth* "—it must show a definite aggregation and arrangement of its elements—if it is to be of use for agricultural purposes. If we now examine again our specimen of garden soil, we shall see that by shaking pieces vigorously, it falls into *crumbs* or little groups of grains, unlike either the separate grains we can scrape off the sandstone, or the sticky putty-like mass of the boulder-clay. " Crumb-structure ", we are told, " has been the unconscious object of all agricultural cultivation throughout the ages, which has been to produce an aggregated granular structure in soils."[1] This kind of " packing " of the particles not only gives full play to the water-storing capacity of fine-grain, but allows air to circulate as well; while the pitted shape of the grain-groups enables the soil to offer considerable resistance to erosion if the vegetation cover is removed.

Before leaving our specimens for the time being, let us contrast the boulder-clay (which would form the soil in local fields) with the soil from our college garden: the latter is much darker and more granular: actually, the field soil may contain up to about 5 per cent of organic matter, and a little-developed granular structure; while the garden soil may have up to 15 per cent organic matter and show a well-developed granulation. *The garden soil is the well-worked, cultivated soil*, and the *field soil is not yet up to the same standard.*[2] The main difference is due to the percentage of organic matter, for this alters the structure, stiffening up light soils and enabling them to retain more moisture and plant-nutrients, and opening out heavy soils to admit of a better circulation of air, water, and plant-foods. The organic matter is clearly derived from the plant cover, so we must now turn to a map of the Natural Vegetation to understand the chief soil-types of the world.

Consider, now, the conventionalized Vegetation map of Europe and Africa. We have been in the habit of studying it in conjunction with relief and climate maps—just as we did for the British Isles in our brief introduction to the topic of our local soils—and we have come to regard the vegetation map as almost a function of the rainfall map: where rain is heavy, the natural vegetation is *forest*; where it is scantier, *grassland* and where rain is very scarce or absent, *desert*.

The section P–Q attempts to show what may happen to the soil under these different rainfall régimes. Where rain is very heavy, near P, all fine particles must be washed down and the residual soil tends to be the coarser remnants, while all soluble material, especially lime, will be removed and the residue tends to be acid. The accumulation of water excludes air, and favours the formation of acid humus, even *peat*. Below the peaty layer, the soil shows zoning or stratification owing to the sorting out of particles by water, while lower down is accumulated the material removed from the top. The result is a Podsol. Three zones are usually recognized in what are called " *soil profiles* " (sections): A, the top layer (usually much sub-divided), from which, in wet climates, *fine* and *soluble* material are removed or *eluviated* and deposited lower down in layer B, beneath which comes the country-rock, layer C. (It should be mentioned that the section P–Q is meant to be very general. The west end of it crosses very high land where tundra would probably be the natural cover; but, owing to the mild damp climate of the Atlantic, the western slope is covered with coniferous forest—with a fair sprinkling of deciduous trees well up towards the Arctic circle, as a tribute to the North Atlantic, " the gulf of warmth ".) There is little cohesion between the zones in Podsols, and such soils would be an easy prey to ' sheet erosion ' were they not protected—as they usually are—by *Coniferous Forest*. This cover is designed to give complete protection. The trees reduce the amount of rain reaching the ground; they lessen the impact of that which does reach it, while the forest-litter acts as a huge sponge, absorbing and filtering the rain so that just a gentle trickle, incapable of doing any damage, reaches the actual soil.

Cleared for human use, coniferous forest gives grassland, but, unfortunately, the removal of the forest with its amazing water-regulating capacity, often causes floods which not only overflow the rivers they once filled, but wash away the soil from the de-forested slopes, and start untold troubles of soil-erosion. This has been the experience of North America to a grievous degree.

Let us next consider the *grasslands* (marked C on the map, and " chernozems " on the sections). Here, " under semi-arid climatic conditions the granular soils, the dream of the arable farmer ",[1] occur *naturally* under a natural grass cover. Grass is essential both for their development and their maintenance, for *the interlacing roots of the grasses break up the soil into granules*, and give the humus which fertilizes it, while the associated fauna, worms and rodents, keep the soil fresh by continually mixing it. It is well known that humus is most effective in association with *lime*, and we see in the section that capillary waters restore the lime washed down by earlier rains, when the dry autumns promote evaporation, so the soil is never sour. This encourages the bacterial life which attacks and breaks up the plant residues, thus keeping a constant supply of nutrients to the growing herbage. The whole system is very stable. " . . . The Prairie or Steppe soil with its natural flora and fauna constitute the most stable biological community known."[1] Cleared for human use, what is likely to be the fate of a *perfect* natural soil? Man cannot improve it, yet his use of it changes it. The fate of the Prairies gives us our answer: the taking of commercial crops from these soils year after year lowers the organic matter content and this leads to loss of crumb-structure, so that instead of granular aggregates the soil becomes dust and blows away!

Intermediate between the Coniferous Forest soils or *Podsols*, and the Prairie soils or *Chernozems*, are the *Deciduous Forest soils*, well developed in western Europe, where they were first attacked and harnessed to the use of man. So slow has been the process of clearing, ploughing, and cultivating, and so liberal the manuring by livestock which were associated with the west European system of agriculture, that these soils, almost alone among the agricultural soils of the world to-day, show little sign of exhaustion. Not only so, but cultivation seems to have checked their natural trend towards the Podsol habit, and induced or strengthened a tendency to granulate; so the cleared Deciduous Forest has become *grain-land*, or grassland capable of growing grain. Much of the rain of this region comes in the form of fog and mist and has little eluviating power, so that British and West European soils are not so strongly leached as those of the Coniferous Forest zone; but, actually, trees are our natural vegetation cover, and our grasslands are unstable under the prevailing conditions of our soil and climate, and need constant care and cultivation:[2] " The climate of the Deciduous Forest is not damp enough to favour entirely grass husbandry, and temporary leys on arable land, and the rejuvenation, aeration, and liming that an arable course imparts to grass land "[3] help to keep the land in condition.

Tragically enough, the methods of cultivation evolved in Western Europe have been taken wherever our civiliza-

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tion has spread, and applied to soils to which they were unsuited. Even in North America, where our stock seems to have taken root naturally, our agricultural methods seem to have been applied too precipitately, with the result that " 40 per cent of the whole United States has lost from ¼ to ¾ of its top soil, and only ⅛ of the soil of the country is immune."[1] When applied to the hot parts of the world, our methods are even more disastrous. The case of Africa, culminating in that of South Africa, is said to present the most serious problems of soil erosion in the world.

Let us consider the section X–Y across Africa, in association with the Vegetation map. We see how *winter* rainfall, in both hemispheres, gives the characteristic ' Mediterranean ' vegetation in the extreme north and the extreme south of the continent ; and how, as rain decreases equatorwards from these extremes, it gives rise successively to thorn-bush, semi-desert and desert. Continuing towards the equator, the rain now begins to increase, " following the sun ", *i.e.* causing *summer* maxima, slight and single near the Tropics of Cancer and Capricorn, but increasing to heavy double maxima at the equinoxes over the equator itself. The vegetation follows in the wake of the rain, and expands from semi-desert through thorn-bush to grassland (savanna), then park-land, to true dense equatorial forest.

What soils correspond to these variations of rainfall and vegetation ? The Mediterranean has its own red soils which grade into the brown-yellow and grey-forest soils showing varying degrees of eluviation according to the rainfall they receive. Equator-wards from these eluviation decreases, the zones of down-washed lime and other material approach and finally reach the surface in the desert, where a loose structureless soil is at the mercy of every wind that blows ! (Hygroscopic salts at the surface have a certain restraining influence on desert soils, but when they are removed by irrigation, they join the mass of alkali a little below, and the upper soil may break down to a structureless dust in dry weather, or an uncultivable syrup in wet weather[1]. This is the " black alkali " so dreaded by the irrigation farmer.)

Continuing towards the equator, the increasing rainfall is seen to induce ever more luxuriant vegetation through tall grasslands with *Chernozem* soils, to parkland as trees increase until the true equatorial forest is reached. Here, to the intensely eluviating effect of torrential rain must be added the speeding up of chemical reactions due to high temperatures. (Van 't Hoff's law states that the speed of a chemical reaction is doubled for every 10° C. (=18° F.) rise of temperature. Lehenbauer's work on the growth of maize seedlings shows that, between certain minimal and optimal temperatures for the various plant functions, this law of temperature still obtains.)[4]

The result is that there exist great depths of weathered soil, 80 ft. to 100 ft. at times, very porous, honeycombed, in fact, but highly stable and resistant to erosion. All fine and all soluble material has been removed, therefore this mineral framework is singularly devoid of mineral nutrients for plants *which must depend entirely, therefore, on the products of disintegration of the native vegetation for their food.*

In the torrid zone the destruction and humification of dead and dying plants are very rapid, and plant nutrients pass almost directly from the decaying vegetation to the roots of the growing plants, using the mineral framework as a passage-way, *not as a storehouse of fertility at all.* Clearing of the forest in such cases means the removal of the sole source of plant food, and is followed by serious deterioration of the soil, the bright red colour of which in the extreme case, " Laterite ", gives a false impression of fertility, but is due, actually, to intense chemical weathering.

The only way of exploiting these hot rain forests is by shifting cultivation on the plan evolved by the natives, who clear a patch, grow crops on it for about five years, then move on before the soil is too depleted to recover. This system is possible only with a small population.[1]

Africa is mainly pastoral, both the tropical grasslands and the sub-tropical veld being natural feeding grounds for large herds of cattle which constitute for the natives, not only a source of food, but a currency and an index of rank. For these reasons, cattle are kept numerically in excess of their economic value, and with the increase of native population under the civilized rule of the white man, pastures have become overstocked, forest cleared (especially on the watersheds in the native reserves of Basutoland and Swaziland), and soil structure degenerated so that wind and water have borne the soil away !

" In soil erosion, Africa deserves first place, for here water-shortage, the sinking of the water-table, and the advance of the desert are most obvious, and these are not due to changes of climate but to soil erosion ",[1] and to the consequent grave increase of destructive run-off waters. *They have appeared only since the white man occupied the country.* Not only white but native cultivators now grow cultivated crops on a commercial scale on cleared forest-parkland and savanna, exposing the soil to the great evaporating power of the air of those low latitudes, with consequent loss of moisture, organic matter, and soil structure, and resulting in severe soil erosion, while the original fertility of the land is exported as commercial crops.

In South Africa where the ill-effects of soil erosion seem to reach a climax, mineral wealth is the chief source of income ; but as the mines are already showing signs of decreased output, a somewhat narrow time-limit is indicated in which to undertake the costly reclamation measures necessary to put South African agriculture on a more or less stable footing.

The inefficient native methods of shifting cultivation in the forest and nomadism on the grasslands were the human response, in its unsophisticated stage, to the geographical environment, but *it was safe.* Now, after bringing agriculture to the brink of disaster by his ingenuity, civilized man admits that " it is unwise to allow land to depart too far from its natural condition of vegetation "[1]. Yet soil *must be used* by man, and the way out of the difficulty seems to be to find out what type of culture *stabilizes* the soil—hitherto man's only interest seemed to be to get a commercial crop out of the soil at any cost !

The remedies suggested for the ills of the African soils are many ; but one is outstanding ; it is the *regional* control of production, so that all the farming within the region shall be such as to conserve the soil. This implies a rigorous control of the watersheds which must not be de-forested. It also implies a rigorously controlled, practically a *feudal* system of land tenure.

It is said by those who know them that the African natives will never adopt soil-conserving methods while there is more land to explore, and to which the nomadic habit urges them to wander. An example of a very different mentality is provided by a tribe, the Bokara, living on an island in Lake Victoria Nyanza, who on their sharply limited area have evolved a conservative agriculture calculated to maintain both a fair output and soil fertility. It seems that the great instructor, Necessity, working on the very foundations of all life, the soil, can teach even primitive man, and hasten his social and intellectual progress by comparison with men of the same race, who have not had the spur of need so strongly pressed home.

Under white domination, the ' colour-bar ' operates yet further to restrict the area available for native settlement and expansion, while the ' civilization ' of the white man encourages that expansion, by eliminating inter-tribal wars, forbidding infanticide, and attacking the problem of diseases and pests. Conspicuous among the latter is the tsetse fly, to exterminate which large tracts of infested forest have been cleared, thereby increasing the liability to soil erosion, and thus aiding and abetting the ignorant native in the destruction of the natural wealth of the land. " The present outlook, however, is more promising, as it is considered that by selective felling, leaving trees of a certain height and

(*Continued on page* 88)

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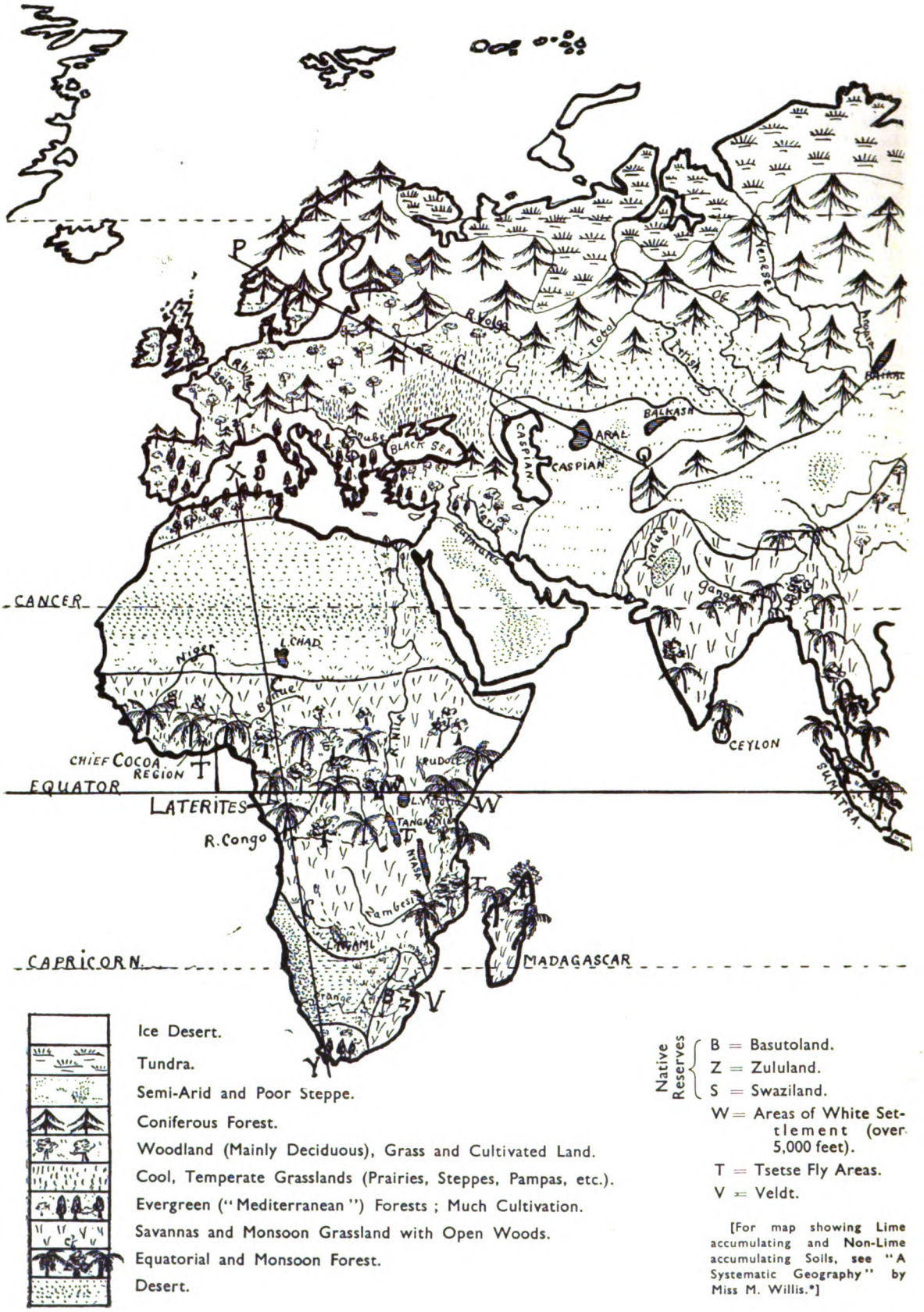

[For map showing Lime accumulating and Non-Lime accumulating Soils, see "A Systematic Geography" by Miss M. Willis.*]

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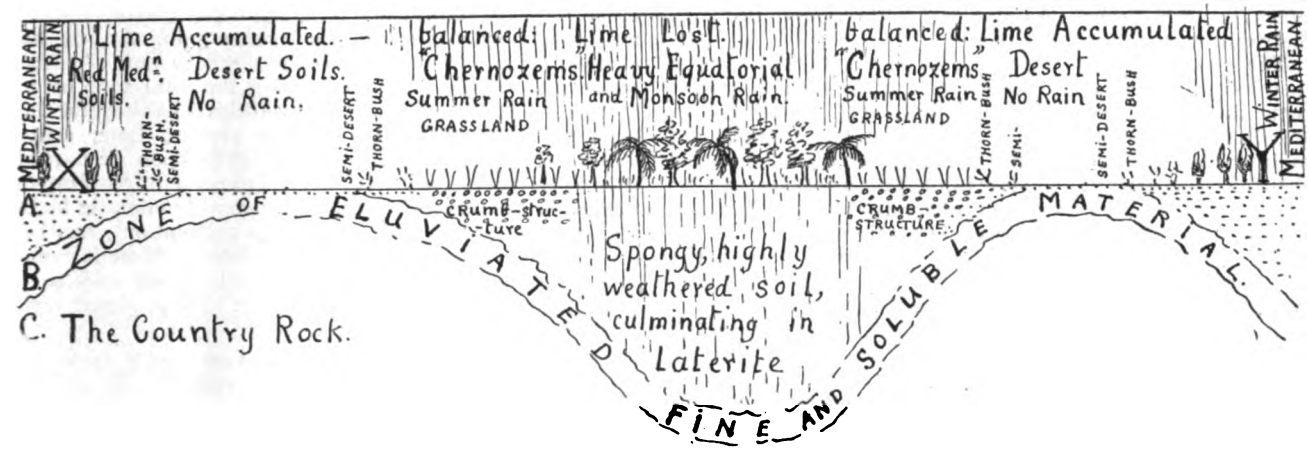
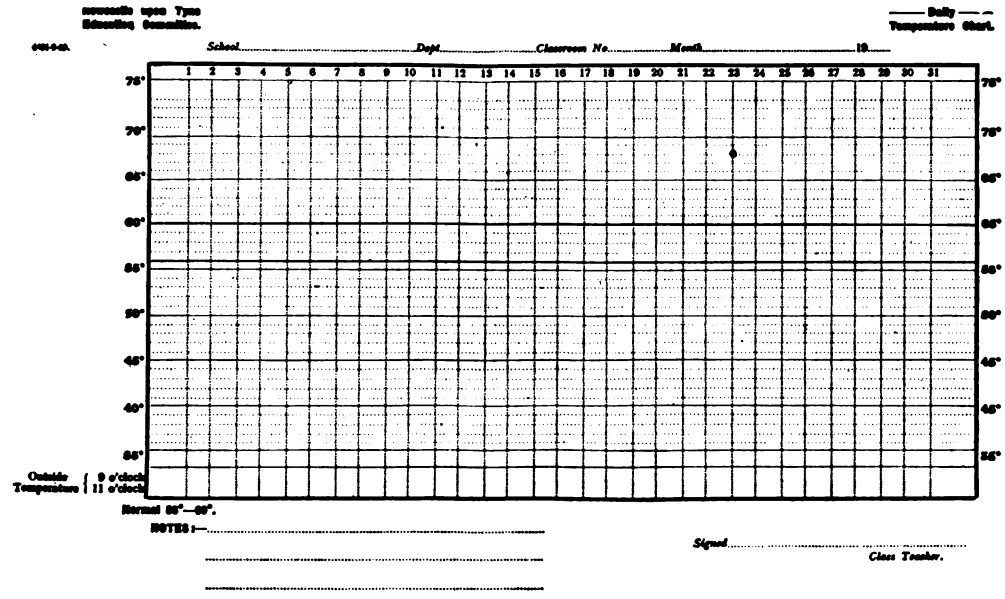


THE SECTIONS

ABOVE, IMAGINARY SECTION ALONG P.—Q., SHOWING SOIL PROFILES IN RELATION TO RAINFALL AND VEGETATION. (Horizontal scale × 3.)

BELOW, IMAGINARY SECTION ALONG X.—Y., SHOWING SOIL PROFILES IN RELATION TO RAINFALL AND VEGETATION. (Horizontal scale × 2.)

In both sections, *Lime* is seen to be lost under heavy rain, accumulated under light or deficient rain, and *balanced* under those conditions of temperature and rainfall that support a natural grass cover. Here, the "Chernozem" soils may suffer some leaching of lime during the Spring rains, but this is largely restored by capillary waters during the evaporation induced by the high temperatures of summer and autumn, so that the soil is never sour.



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type, it will be possible both to control the fly, and retain the protective forest cover."[1]

So, a little knowledge leads to activities—these, to mistakes; these, to corrections and more knowledge, in an endless chain of cause and effect—all forging links of human responsibility and solidarity.

This article has attempted to outline work on the study of the soil, and its importance as a foundation of human geography.

Admitting at the outset the complexity and subtlety of the subject, a somewhat obvious method of approach, ignoring all such difficulties to begin with, was undertaken, using British maps showing the *geology*, *relief*, *rainfall*, and *vegetation*, in order to introduce *local soils*, and give the students concrete ideas as a foundation for their work. This opened the way for the use of a similar set of world maps to approach the study of world distribution of prevailing soil types, and the principles underlying that distribution.

The use of rainfall maps as keys to vegetation maps is justified by general usage, but needs qualification—we must remember that one of the chief functions of the soil is " to stabilize climatic moisture ", and that a soil retentive of moisture in any locality may maintain a vegetation cover there characteristic of a heavier rainfall than actually exists; while conversely, a porous soil may introduce prematurely a vegetation indicative of a deficient rainfall.

The sections are related mainly to rainfall, though the factor of temperature, in promoting chemical weathering and increasing evaporation, has been borne in mind.

The whole subject is so vast and so intricate, that the simile of the human mind exploring a zone of contact of many influences, and responding selectively to the subtle interplay of such as come within its apprehension, was immediately suggested. For it is in this way that man has responded to the stimulus of that amazing zone of innumerable contacts that is covered by the term *the Soil*.

We usually think of the soil as a derivative of the country rock, and a function of the geological formation; and such, so far as the original mineral framework is concerned, it is. But it is much more than this.

From below upwards, inorganic Nature provides a liaison zone with organic Nature through plants and their derivative, the organic matter of the soil, which enters into something more than mere physical contact with the most finely divided mineral matter to form the *colloidal complex*, a region of intense chemical and biological activity.

On the maintenance of the activities of this zone, keeping going aeration, percolation, the Carbon and Nitrogen cycles, with the resultant growth, decay and humification of plants, *all living creatures depend absolutely for their food*. Here, such animals as earthworms and rodents, ants and termites, help in the work; but man, in his early life, merely rummaged, clumsily taking what he needed, like any other predatory animal, without thought of the result! Later, having learnt some tricks that gave him good results at home, he went about the Earth, like a mischievous monkey, using his knowledge merely for his own gain. At last, he is emerging from this irresponsible stage to one of greater apprehension, and is now exploring the vital zone of contacts in the soil to see what potentialities it has beyond those hitherto manifested. Up to the present time, crumb-structure, depending on a certain aggregation of particles only to be maintained by a fairly high percentage of organic matter in relation to certain indispensable climatic factors (*or* to most careful and continuous cultivation), has been *the* criterion of success in soil treatment. Must it remain so? Or will the evolving mind find other and so far unsuspected potentialities in that yet little-explored region of obscure influences, the soil?

[1] **The Rape of the Earth.** By G. V. JACKS and R. O. WHYTE. (Faber & Faber.)

[2] **Mother Earth.** By G. W. ROBINSON.

[3] **Presidential Address to the Agricultural Section of the British Association; Cambridge, 1938.**

[4] **The Distribution of Vegetation in Relation to Climatic Conditions in the United States of America.** By BURTON E. LIVINGSTONE and FOREST SHREVE. Carnegie Institute Publications, 1921.

AN OXFORDSHIRE CAMP

By W. R. GREENSHIELDS

AT the end of the summer term a group of undergraduates started a labour camp a few miles from Oxford, and some account of this experiment may be of general interest.

The idea behind the scheme was that a period of training in a communal life of service with hard work on the farms would fit the men for the army, physically and morally, and that this training would stand them in good stead both during and after the war.

It has been the rule that every one going to the camp takes his turn at all the various jobs and each man is in turn agricultural worker, gardener, cook, accountant, orderly, &c., thus by very practical training acquiring a good working knowledge of how to look after himself and others; and the time spent at this camp has been a very real help to many young men now in the army.

The scheme was started as the result of a suggestion by a local landowner, who offered a range of disused farm buildings. There was a considerable amount of work involved in making the buildings habitable, but this was in itself a valuable part of the scheme as all sorts of problems of sanitation, heating, ventilation, &c., were involved and had to be solved with the simplest of resources. The original party was ten undergraduates, but their number rapidly increased, and between twenty and thirty men of every walk in life have been in residence most of the time, and just under one hundred men in all have spent varying periods in the camp. To cover possible periods of idleness it was originally proposed that every man who could afford it should pay 17s. 6d. per week, but it was soon apparent that the camp would be self-supporting and the accumulated funds were used to pay railway fares for men who could not afford them, and to purchase pigs, hens, tools, &c. to form a small reserve. Work has been done for farmers in the district, hay, harvest, root-hoeing, hedging, threshing, &c., and a good deal of work was done for the neighbouring aerodrome in the way of hedging and clearing bushes. From agricultural work done a matter of £350 has been earned by the Camp in the nineteen weeks ending October 25. From an agricultural point of view the Camp has been an unqualified success, as it has dealt successfully with all the demand for casual and seasonal work in the area, and the farmers express the warmest appreciation of the work done. Most of the men at the camp had no experience of manual work or of life under primitive conditions, and, as the camp is completely isolated and there is no 'going round to Woolworths for it', great ingenuity has had to be developed in making use of the materials at hand.

The begetters of this scheme were all members of the 'Oxford Group' and the camp has been run as a 'Group' camp, although not all the men attending have been members of the group. The strong moral background thus provided has given a common spiritual bond which has been of very great value in running the camp and has simplified

(*Continued on page 90*)

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or eliminated a great many potential difficulties of discipline and conduct. The camp has set itself deliberately to train for leadership with the idea that men trained in the camp would develop qualities of initiative and resource, and thus be able to play an important part in the life and moral regeneration of the Nation.

As a side line, a canteen was started for the troops in the area and particularly for a training aerodrome which was alongside the camp. This was a great success and was much appreciated by the troops. The training aerodrome has been closed and the canteen is now reduced to serve only the troops on guard duty who can be served from the ordinary camp kitchen, and this has really benefited the camp organization as no special canteen staff is required.

Expenses have been kept low and the average cost of complete maintenance including laundry has been 20s., or a shade under, per man per week.

Great appreciation has been shown by the farmers of the assistance given them by the members of the camp, and one of the leading farmers of the district has said that he has never had such willing and conscientious workers, and that whatever skill may have been lacking was more than made up in spirit and endeavour.

The effects on the young men themselves have been remarkable, particularly on those who were town-bred, and the general tone of the camp has been excellent.

More work is available than they can undertake and there is every prospect that they will be fully employed right through the winter. Arrangements are made for entertainment and instruction in the winter evenings, and many of the men are in a fair way to become craftsmen in various ways. Winter work will include hedging under a skilled instructor (many of the men are already able to cut and lay a hedge), ditching, drainage, forestry work, and agricultural maintenance jobs of all sorts.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE FUTURE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SIR,—It is interesting to experience, after reading the articles by Messrs. Joad, Laski and company in your current issue, the same odd feeling that one has had after reading books on the same subject by such writers as Pekin and Calder-Marshall—that one has learnt a lot about the psychological make-up of the author, but little about the public schools. It takes little imagination to visualize Mr. Joad's pathetic strivings to be a ' he-man ', Prof. Laski's haunting fear that society will not accord him the respect which is his due, Mr. Bevan's painful anxiety about wearing the right kind of tie, Mr. Neill's furious determination to be ' natural ', Mr. Curry's terror lest his own unconscious sadism should corrupt the delicate flower of his educational ideals, or his aggressive instinct find its expression in nasty rough things like House rugger matches. This line of thought is, of course, double-edged—my own complexes may be laid bare by this letter ; but at least I can claim twenty-five years of inside knowledge of public schools, with three years of a secondary day school thrown in. All these writers proclaim that they know little or nothing of public schools as they are to-day—and some of them do not, apparently, want to. The public schools which they describe and flagellate exist partly in their own imaginative reactions, and partly in the eccentricities of the ' misfits ' and failures which no human institution can guarantee not to produce. If any of these writers would like to find out from inside what a public school is really like, I should be only too glad—and I am sure that other headmasters would also—to give them the opportunity, by personal contact with the boys themselves, or in any other way they might suggest. I should take much pleasure, for instance, in exhibiting to Mr. Joad my barbaro-Philistines at work on their brick-heaving—playing their Bach (and Bartok), reading papers to the Essay Society on ' French Impressionism ' or T. S. Eliot, writing (very bad) poetry when they should be doing Latin prose, discussing Einstein with more enthusiasm than understanding—and through it all, no doubt, deeply conscious of the social impropriety of what they are doing.

A detailed criticism of these articles would take up too much space at this stage of the controversy in your columns, and I must content myself with a few disconnected remarks.

Whatever may have been the case when Mr. Joad was at ——, the majority of public school boys to-day are open-minded, tolerant, interested in men and affairs, acquainted with contemporary movements, stirred by social enthusiasms. They do not despise poetry or music, science or philosophy, good literature or art, or " the processes of reason ". They also, for what it is worth, know quite a lot about farming and gardening, physical hygiene, and economics.

Pace Prof. Laski and Mr. Bevan, public school boys are not " class-conscious "—far less so, in my experience, than many people who have not been to a public school. Why, incidentally, does Prof. Laski want to impose a purely intellectual test for admission to his ' improved ' public schools ? Is not this merely to substitute another form of snobbery for the one he so roundly condemns ? Perhaps Mr. Bevan is a bachelor—even so it is hard to forgive, in one who ventures to write about education, the naïve assumption that the ideal educational system of the future will be a " simple " one in which the " child unit "—whatever that may be—will docilely follow a predetermined course. If Mr. Bevan is a father, do not his children ever surprise him ?

In any intelligently run public school, boys are not homosexually obsessed, nor inhibited by terror of their female relatives. I commend to Mr. Neill's consideration the following incident which I recently observed. The school was coming down the hill from chapel on Sunday morning —in front of me walked a boy of fifteen with some of his friends. At the foot of the hill, in the school quadrangle, a car was waiting, and from the car emerged a young lady of three who toddled half-way up the steps and greeted her brother with every demonstration of affection. In a moment she was on his shoulder, and the centre of an admiring group for the remainder of the descent. No trace of self-consciousness was to be seen.

When Mr. Curry maintains that the public schools create barriers which cannot be broken down, and quotes the " older regiments " as illustrations of this, has he considered the older universities, in which nowadays public school boys are in a minority ? Is any evidence of class segregation to be found there ?

What answer does Mr. Curry give to the criticism of ' progressive ' schools like his own, that to be allowed to do just what you like, without responsibility to any one but yourself, is not the best training for life in the world outside ? (It is interesting to see that on page 23 of his book *The School* he writes : " If all that is necessary to produce the perfect human being is to leave him alone, why go to the expense and trouble of organizing educational institutions ? "). Who is going to do more for society after school —the individualist who has been allowed to believe that ' self-expression ' is the chief aim of life, and the path to happiness, or the public school prefect whose job has taught him to use his wits, his imagination, and his spare time for the good of those under his charge ?

I do not wish to suggest that these articles do not contain a good deal of which it is salutary that public school masters —and boys—should be frequently reminded. I have already begun to discuss them, as constructively as possible, with my own sixth form in our weekly ' current events '

(*Continued on page 92*)

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period—perhaps, later on, you would allow me to give you some account of their reactions. My contention is that, as a whole, the picture they present is a caricature of the public schools of to-day; and that this lack of accurate knowledge on their authors' part invalidates much of the criticism which they contain.

H. K. LUCE.

School House,
Durham.

SIR,—Having read your correspondent, Mr. T. C. Worsley, to the point where he describes public-school life as "obscene, brutal, and savage", I concluded that any one who could write such twaddle was not worth further reading.

E. W. E. KEMPSON.

Royal Naval College,
Dartmouth.

[What Mr. Worsley wrote was: "The best analogy to public-school life, with its quaint or obscene or brutal customs, is the life of the savage tribe."—ED.]

MR. CHURCHILL AND HARROW

SIR,—The writer of the interesting note about Mr. Churchill's views on education in your February issue was surely not accurate in saying that the Harrow 'experiment' of educating local boys with the boarders had been a failure. If it was not a complete success the fault lay with the powerful interests concerned with alienating the endowments from their original purpose. The authorized biography of Butler, the Headmaster of that period, shows that, when the school scheme was revised so as to exclude the local day boys in 1868, the Harrow parishioners through a local resident entered a petition against the deprivation of their rights under the scheme. The petition was rejected by the Privy Council because of a technical failure to present it in correct form. The local parishioners felt they had been unfairly deprived of their rights and that feeling persisted for many years, even though a 'lower school' was founded to provide a less expensive education for day boys. The same feeling still persists in other districts where a scheme providing primarily for the education of local day boys was amended and the endowments alienated to provide solely for boarders.

Mr. Churchill (who is a Harrovian) seems to have hit the nail on the head with his customary accuracy when he says that the public schools must revert to their original purpose of providing education for poor scholars. I have lived in Harrow and know the local conditions, and I believe that Harrow ought in large degree to revert to its original scheme and to the expressed wishes of its founder, John Lyon. I am convinced that the school would, thereby, get a new lease of life. The same is true of Rugby.

The evil was done by the Public Schools' Act of 1868 which, in my view, was a piece of class legislation that would certainly have been violently fought by the Labour Party had it been first introduced during the last twenty-five years. Our Victorian grandparents had a peculiar talent for grabbing old endowments and using them for the well-to-do middle and upper classes, while declaring unctuously that it was for the good of all.

VERB. SAP.

ARMY EDUCATION

SIR,—I read with keen interest and sympathy the letter from the soldier ex-teacher, P. M. Burns, commenting upon my article on Army Education. Here are some comments on a few of the important issues he raises:

(1) I share his view that there is a strong case for compulsory education in the army, so long as the syllabus was wisely chosen. The soldier is already obliged to attend classes in many kinds of military and technical training, but he would be a more knowledgable and interested soldier if he were also instructed in, let us say, World Affairs, Writing and Speaking, Everyday Science, History and Handicrafts.

(2) It would be far better if the Unit Education Officer were a full-time specialist instead of being, as he now is, a part-time amateur. And if he had under him a dozen sergeant-instructors he could very well achieve the programme of education outlined in the preceding paragraph.

(3) For the time being the War Office is unlikely to accept so extensive and expensive a development. Their objections will be not merely on financial grounds but on the plea that the army is too fully employed in strictly military training and in preparing to resist invasion. But when demobilization comes—a process which will be far slower than it was after 1918—it will be imperative to provide the army with the kind of educational scheme which Mr. Burns would like to see here and now.

My comments on the letter signed by Sir Walter Moberly, the Master of Balliol, and Dr. Yeaxlee are these:

(4) My authority for declaring that the army is going to attempt education largely off its own bat is not the pamphlet *Education in the War-Time Army*, published last September, but a much more recent statement embodied in a document called A.C.I. 59.

(5) My view that the Central Council for Adult Education in H.M. Forces is dominated by the academic outlook is based partly on the emphasis it puts on the provision of lectures rather than the provision of simpler facilities, and partly on my knowledge of those who are its most active members and spokesmen. The Central Council gives little time and thought to informal educational activities; the Regional Committees, on the other hand, do; and I should willingly endorse any tribute to the present manifold activities of the Regional Committees. The Army needs all it can get of the lectures and courses provided by the Regional Committees, but the army needs also many other kinds of education. In its effort to develop these facilities from its own amateur and professional talent the army is showing a healthy independence of the leading-strings which the Central Council would like to continue holding.

YOUR CORRESPONDENT.

COMMUNITY SINGING

SIR,—Community singing has been allowed to stagnate. It began with a fine élan under Mr. Gibson Young and Mr. Eric Godfrey—but it has never expanded to the place it should have occupied. Sir Walford Davies, who has done so much for music, has been too much occupied in stimulating the mind so that the voice has jogged along as best it could.

Yet it is a simple thing provided your leader has four things:

1. A sense of rhythm.
2. A sense of humour.
3. A sense of interpretation.
4. A sense of audience.

Much good work is spoilt because these four things do not synchronize. It is not enough to care for music, you must present it so that others care too—in their own way, of course, and that is what must be studied.

Most audiences are slightly different, but two basic things remain—they like to be amused and they like to be encouraged.

In order to supply both—divide your room always in sections and pit one group against the other. Begin with some very simple airs they all know, and call it a diving-off ground for voice-testing. Never let them be completely satisfied or entirely discouraged—but stimulated, gloriously stimulated all the time. As each section sings, the sense of competition will become acute. Never criticize without a

(Continued on page 94)

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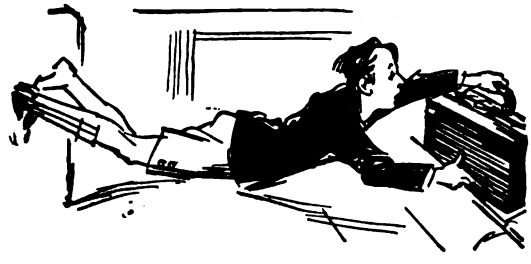

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word of praise first and with the assumption that first efforts can never be final—they are the apprenticeship for the beautiful. For the first ten minutes amuse your competing groups with any old simple song you like and then take a more difficult song, working on its interpretation, dramatic, and melodic values. Keep the swing going and never explain at any great length. Swing and sing it.

D. EARDLEY-WILMOT.

49 Grosvenor Street,
London, W. 1.

THE TEACHING OF ART

SIR,—I was glad to read in your January issue the letter of Mr. E. Sharwood Smith. It looked as if the time were over when it was necessary to fight for the new approach to Child Art, but apparently the problem to find the teachers has not yet been quite solved. There is certainly some instruction given to future teachers in training colleges and universities, but is it always the right one, enabling them to "inspire", as Mr. Sharwood Smith so rightly says? Mere training in techniques is scarcely sufficient, nor is a mere introduction to appreciation of Art. Moreover, if Art should lose its role as a 'Cinderella', which it still seems to play in some schools, will it not be necessary to train the present teachers? I know there were courses given to teachers (I have given some of them myself under the auspices of local education authorities) but have all 'old' teachers been won for Child Art? Do all of them believe that it is at least as important as the three R's?

How right Mr. Sharwood Smith is in speaking of the gradual ennobling of the taste of the general public which can be started only in schools. Children cannot be 'taught' better taste, but can to a large extent be made immune against all the trash of misunderstood civilization by becoming, or rather by remaining, creative themselves. If all the children of the nation under the guidance of their teachers use their innate creative faculties during school life—will they not become creative men and women afterwards? The time after this war will need creative men and women in all professions.

I should imagine that courses like those at London and Reading Universities mentioned by Mr. Smith, could be organized at practically all universities and training colleges, and could be made accessible to teachers as well.

W. VIOLA.

Woodbrooke College,
Selly Oak, Birmingham.

EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

YOUTH CAMPS IN FRANCE

IT is almost pathetic to watch the gradual regimentation of young lives in France along lines almost identical with those in Germany and Italy. There is a great difference, nevertheless. In Germany uniforms, military bearing, and patterned lives always seemed to satisfy the normal man and woman. For that reason the average German was happy enough to see his children roped into one of these unifying camps.

In France the position is different, so different in fact that the setting up of these camps has brought a flood of contradiction. Some educationists and journalists express the view that the camps are needed to discipline the younger French population which was without discipline. Others see the camps as the incubators of comradeship which, they believe, was lacking among children, and yet others see these camps as workshops turning out apprentices ready to take up trades instead of flooding professions.

Monsieur Condroyer in *Le Journal* boldly attacks French youth, reserving for it a life of severe hardship in these camps which have been set up all over France. He writes: "The results of the systems and manners before the war flourished under one sign, materialism; the only worry youth had was how much to eat, drink and sleep; what to complain about; egoism, indolence, without even an elementary notion of cleanliness." Then he changes his tune a little and says that all these blots are not really the fault of youth but of the educational system and an unbalanced society.

For Monsieur Gerard in *Le Figaro* these Youth Camps have a very different part to play because the children have a different need. He sees the average French boy lacking in the spirit of comradeship because he moved with just a few friends and, as a result, saw the world through smaller eyes, with a more limited vision.

". . . Isolated, left to himself, and without direction a young man will soon rot, while in the company of others results soon show themselves; timidly at first he seeks friendships and soon forms part of a team." In other words the writer in *Le Figaro* looks for a team spirit as the outcome of these camps which, he believes, never existed in France. He certainly does not accuse French youth of all the crimes tabulated in *Le Journal*.

Finally Marcel Déat in *L'Œuvre* asks that the camps should be run strictly along German lines. He wants to sweep the past away; only the future counts. Life in the camps should be regimented and children should not be left to do nothing, that is, they should not be given time to think. During the day, work—manual labour preferably—then, at play-time organized games; only in this way will the young Frenchman grow up to be a credit to his country and ready to serve. Déat also wants girls' camps where young children may first form an idea of what a woman's duties are, so that later in life they will be equipped to take their places in their own homes.

Reading through the French press, studying the arguments of educationists and of the new social reformers, the reader can come only to one conclusion. The new France is false and artificial. After the defeat something told them that France was at fault somewhere, but, instead of looking around for the real remedy, the Government began to weave a pattern similar to that of its conquerors, and having completed its task has no clear idea what it is all about.

S. H. KAHN.

BRITISH COLUMBIA

ACCORDING to *The B.C. Teacher*, the official organ of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation, teachers have been somewhat perturbed by a finding of the Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relations that education should have to fight for its life and should not therefore be the object of any particular safeguards in so far as the report of the Commission was concerned. The comment of the magazine is:

"When folk say that 'education must fight for its life' they may perhaps forget that the real meaning is that the thousands of Canadian teachers whose salary does not provide even a decent subsistence allowance must fight for their life. The meaning is that boys and girls requiring educational facilities which the local community will not or cannot supply must fight for their life. A corollary would seem to be that the Dominion of Canada has no special concern regarding the education of Canadian citizens."

The offending paragraph is then quoted so that the verdict of the Commission may be read in its proper context:

"It is our hope that provision can be made for the fiscal needs of all provinces, including within those needs provision for the education of the young. Our financial proposals aim at placing every province in a position to

(*Continued on page 96*)

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discharge its responsibilities for education (on a scale that is within the means of the people of Canada) if it chooses to do so. Once this position is established it seems best to us that education, like every other form of welfare service in a democratic community, should have to fight for its life, and that a generous provision for the education of the children of the nation should depend, not on any arbitrary constitutional provision, but on the persistent conviction of the mass of the people that they must be ready to deny themselves some of the good things of life in order to deal fairly with their children. Hence we do not think that it would be wise or appropriate for the Dominion to make grants to the Provinces ear-marked for the support of general education."

Again :

" No control of provincial expenditures is contemplated. Every province would be quite free to improve its services by specially heavy taxation, or to have specially light taxation by reducing its services, or to develop some services at the expense of others which would remain below it."

The final comment of our contemporary is :

" If the improvement secured is sufficient to alleviate measurably the distress incidental to leaving education to fight perpetually for its life, teachers should welcome and support the general findings of the Commission ; but they should be making themselves intelligently sure that the recommendations of the Commissioners, if put into effect, will really mitigate the struggle for existence on the part of the ill-paid teachers of Canada and give young Canadians everywhere a better assurance of a proper education."

S. B. L.

U.S.A.

THE American Teacher publishes an account of an important case in which the right of a teacher to run for public office was tested. The teacher concerned decided to become a candidate for the Indiana State Legislature in the primary election. A few days later his employers, the East Chicago Board of School Trustees, passed a resolution forbidding any employee to become a candidate for elective political office without taking leave of absence without pay. The teacher continued his campaign and was consequently forced to take leave without pay. In the election he was defeated by a small margin and was then permitted to return to his teaching duties. Meanwhile the situation had attracted national attention, and, since a far-reaching principle was involved, the teacher brought an action to recover his lost salary. The court found for the plaintiff and entered judgment in his favour, ordering that the salary lost during the enforced leave of absence, together with interest at 6 per cent for the two years since it was withheld, should be paid in full. " This victory in the courts ", says our contemporary, " has real significance in the effort of teachers to have their full constitutional rights respected."

The current number of *The Phi Delta Kappa* gives prominence to an article on " The Educator's Responsibility in Our Democratic Society ". In a democratic society, it is said, one characteristic of an efficient educational programme is the thoroughness and rapidity with which the individual can be adjusted to and prepared for intelligent participation in the changing social order. It is not assumed that this task has been completely achieved in any of our democratic nations, but it has been seriously attempted.

THE report of the President of Columbia University for 1940 has recently been issued. In it Dr. Butler remarks at the outset that, despite the steady development of a world-wide war and the resulting disturbance to the intellectual life of every nation whether directly involved in the military contest or not, the history of the year under review is remarkable. A most important happening was the incorporation in the educational system of the university of the New York School of Social Work, which brings into university companionship a group of experienced and well-trained scholars and workers in this important field. Many impressive results in scientific research are also recorded.

The University Committee on National Defence is vigorously at work. The president, in presenting to the membership of the University Faculties the problems which they were all to be compelled to face, pointed out that the true function of the university in this co-operation with Government would be defined by the university's aim—the conservation and extension of knowledge. That must therefore be undertaken with redoubled vigour in respect to the analysis and understanding of the economic, social, and political problems which are involved in this world war and which are creating for the United States the crisis which confronts it. " Inasmuch as we in the United States are confronted, as is every other country, by emotional outbursts which are quite hysterical in character and which lead to acts of the utmost cruelty and violence, we must make sure that our scholars use their opportunity, which is as unique as it is tremendous, to guide public opinion into the paths of reason, of reflection, and of understanding. It is of the very essence of our national defence that our people as a whole should understand what they are defending, and that they should have this presented to them with calmness, good judgment, and full knowledge. . . . Moreover, it is of the utmost importance that we all bear in mind the need which will be most pressing when armed hostilities come to an end, to undertake once more the task of laying the foundations for a system of international organization and co-operation for the protection of the world's prosperity and the world's peace."

Dr. Butler stresses the complete sympathy and co-operation evident among representatives of the various religious faiths—Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish, and quotes Dean Inge's remark that it is becoming impossible for those who mix with their fellowmen to believe that the grace of God is distributed denominationally. Other interesting matters dealt with in the report are the rapid development of the junior college in the United States during the past generation ; the decline and fall of the study of the classics in American secondary schools and colleges ; the influence of the universities on the guidance of public opinion ; and the efforts made to bring the peoples of the two American continents into closer contact with each other.

S. B. L.

AUSTRALIAN STUDIES

THE second series of Australian Educational Studies,* issued under the auspices of the Australian Council for Educational Research, comprises several interesting papers, and furnishes clear evidence of the hard thinking that is being bestowed on education in the Dominion. Mr. J. D. G. Medley leads off with his stimulating address on " Education for Uncertainty ". Two of the subsequent chapters are by teachers who, with the help of Carnegie Education Fellowships, spent a year under the direction of the Institute of Education, University of London. Both of these contributions show that the holders of the scholarships made excellent use of their opportunities, and brought back a helpful message to their own country. Another paper, on the education of Nazi women, gives a first-hand account of a Nazi girls' school, preceded by an outline of the history of women's education in Germany. " I had rather ", says the writer in her summing-up, " be born in a Latin country where, if a woman has no rights, at least she has certain privileges, or in Soviet Russia, where, if she has no privileges, she has all her rights, than in Nazi Germany, where she has neither rights nor privileges. Theoretically her place is in the home, but her actual place is in eleven million jobs, military and civil."

* **Australian Educational Studies (Second Series).** By J. D. G. MEDLEY, J. A. LA NAUZE, R. T. CROSTHWAITH, H. C. ROBINSON, ANNA DANE. (Educational Research Series, No. 59). Paper, 7s. net ; cloth, 8s. 6d. net. Melbourne University Press in association with the Oxford University Press).

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TOPICS AND EVENTS

THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

THE future of society was the main preoccupation of a New Year conference of the New Education Fellowship, held at Oxford under the chairmanship of Mr. J. Compton. It was characteristic of the widening concern of educationists that a gathering of about a hundred men and women, representing all spheres of education, should have concentrated on a theme which would once have seemed ' not their business '. To-day it is realized that on this issue hangs the future of education, and that educationists have their own contribution to make to the refashioning of society.

The discussion was opened by Mr. Kenneth Ingram and Dr. Karl Mannheim, both of whom insisted that a transition from *laissez-faire* to a planned economy was inevitably taking place. With the examples of totalitarianism before us, the task to which this country was summoned must be the development of democratic planning with freedom as its constant goal. In Dr. Mannheim's analogy, we have to plan the railway without dictating the conversation of the passengers.

Modern techniques of communication, of warfare, of the arts of influencing human behaviour, facilitate the concentration of power in the hands of a few. Our problem is to secure that planning shall be done in accordance with the will of the community and in its interests. Mr. Ingram, postulating that the economic machine must pass under public ownership, pointed out that a growing body of ' middle opinion ' was prepared for this. But a new economic system could not provide more than a greater opportunity. The content of a new society would depend on changes in every aspect of life, including personal life. This was a question of religion and of education, for it meant the adoption of values very different from those which in fact govern our present society.

Dr. Mannheim analysed very closely the social techniques required to produce change without incurring the waste and loss that follow violent revolution. He maintained that by an alert seizure of every opportunity in every specialized sphere we could initiate change and insert the values for which we stood. Miss Ruth Thomas illustrated this point from her experience as a psychologist working largely in evacuation. Fifty years' progress in the extension of psychological services had been made since the outbreak of war, because the voluntary mental welfare organizations had been quick to step in wherever a need was felt that could be met by psychological workers. Whatever the reason for which help was accepted—it might be merely the nuisance of bed-wetting—the main point was that a beginning had been made.

The war emergency, Miss Thomas said, had brought to light points where our practices were built on false values —the cult of material success, for instance, and our middle-class exclusiveness of possessions and personality. Out of the emergency arose chances of replacing these values by those that belong to neighbourliness and community living. This could not be done by teaching them, but only by practising them, for it is the implicit values that exert the most profound influence.

Against this background of sociological thinking the conference discussed certain specific educational questions. Sir Philip Hartog spoke on The Creation of the Intellectual Conscience. Dr. E. F. Griffith led a discussion on the need for Sex Education. The problem of the curriculum and its integration was the subject of a symposium contributed by Dr. H. G. Stead, Miss C. Fletcher, and Mr. G. P. Meredith. Historically the curriculum had grown under forces of which people were unconscious. To-day we are conscious of social forces as well as of the fact that a child's learning must be rooted in his experience. To do justice to both the social and the individual claims was the problem of the curriculum, to choose our fields of knowledge in such a way as to produce willing co-operative planners and at the same time rich individuals.

THE JOINT FOUR

THE Report of the Joint Committee of the Four Secondary Associations for 1940 is a record of strenuous work and of watchfulness to ensure that the evil effects of war conditions on education shall not unduly hamper efficiency. Evacuation problems claimed early attention, including the scarcity of suitable billets, the reason for the return of evacuees to their homes, the use of school camps, the provision of medical services, the recruitment of new pupils for secondary schools, the conduct of special place examinations, the curtailment of school holidays, and the position of teachers as regards tenure. These were discussed with representatives of the Association of Directors and Secretaries for Education, and deputations waited on the Chief Medical Officer of the Ministry of Health and the President of the Board of Education. The improved billeting allowances for teachers were obtained largely as the result of the Committee's representations.

The failure of a number of local authorities to exercise to the full the powers granted to them by the Local Government Staffs (War Service) Act has been a matter of grave concern. Some authorities refused to take action, and others made up salaries only to a very limited extent. It was pointed out to the Association of Education Committees that the inevitable consequence of this would be a drift from the schools under an ungenerous authority into areas where a generous practice prevailed, and that Association gave a much appreciated publicity to these views.

The action of the Swansea Borough Council in requiring all its employees, including teachers, to sign declarations asserting that they were neither conscientious objectors nor members of the Peace Pledge Union, nor did they " hold views which are in conflict with the purpose to which the nation's effort is directed in the present war ", caused much misgiving. In calling the attention of the Board of Education to the matter the Joint Committee recognized that customary liberties of speech and action had been surrendered for the duration of the war, and that this temporary surrender had been accepted as necessary by all teachers. But the demand for a formal expression of this acceptance, linked with assertions irrelevant to it, appeared both unnecessary and useless. The Joint Committee greatly welcomed the subsequent publication by the Board of a Memorandum making it clear that no person should be penalized for the mere holding of an opinion, and they were glad that Swansea reversed its former decision and reinstated two teachers who had been suspended.

Every effort was made, unfortunately without success, to persuade the Government to reinstitute the competitive examinations for the Civil Service.

The Examinations Sub-committee has remained in being to deal with urgent matters, and modifications in the London Higher and School Certificate Examinations were subjected to a good deal of criticism, particularly the division of the School Certificate Biology paper into three sections, the choice of questions being thereby restricted. The difficulties experienced by evacuated schools in obtaining facilities for practical work gave rise to much concern, particularly in connexion with the Higher Certificate examination, and the University was asked to allow candidates who had done little or no practical work since evacuation to pass this examination at ' Main ' standard and to be assessed for State Scholarship purposes on their performance

(*Continued on page* 100)

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in the theoretical papers alone. Other matters under consideration include the Report of the Investigators upon the Higher Examinations held in 1937, and the desirability of a general and immediate reduction in the content of School Certificate syllabuses in view of the interruptions of school work by air raids and other war conditions.

It is evident that the Joint Committee has fully maintained its value as the mouthpiece of responsible opinion in matters affecting secondary education.

Schools as Community Feeding Centres.—The Board of Education in Circular 1539 and the Scottish Education Department ask all local education authorities, as a matter of urgency, to make immediate provision of facilities in their schools for feeding the general public during special emergencies. Such provision includes the installation of cooking stoves and water-tanks. The cost will be met by the Ministry of Food. Schools may also be used as community feeding centres for the general public, but educational facilities must be maintained as fully as possible and restored where they are not in full operation. Subject to this over-riding consideration, local education authorities may assist or take charge of the organization of community feeding on behalf of the local authority, and the Circular suggests what steps might be taken.

School Examinations.—We welcome the concessions which the Board of Education have announced in Memorandum No. 271 with regard to the 1941 School and Higher School Certificate examinations. The conditions under which schools will have prepared for the examinations in 1941 are in some respects worse than in the previous year. Many candidates will have spent their pre-Certificate year as well as their Certificate year under war conditions, and the great amount of time spent in shelters in some areas as a result of the intensification of air-raids will have hampered still further the work of preparation. No reduction in the syllabuses is suggested, but a wider choice of questions will be given, so that candidates who have for unavoidable causes been unable to cover the whole ground, may yet have ample opportunity of showing their proficiency. Schools are invited to submit the results of school records in respect of candidates to the examining bodies. Special attention should be given to such records at a time when abnormal circumstances may hamper or interrupt the conduct of formal written examinations. Special consideration should also be given to pupils entering for handicraft and domestic subjects from schools which have experienced certain special difficulties in providing the necessary instruction. The methods for conducting the examinations in secondary and junior technical schools in 1941 will be the same as in 1940, and suggestions are made in the Memorandum for lightening the amount of work thrown upon education authorities in reception areas, whose staffs have already been depleted.

Formation of Air Training Corps.—Local education authorities are already aware generally of the scheme recently announced by the Air Ministry for forming Air Training Corps units for boys of 16 and upwards. The Board of Education hope that local education authorities will do all in their power to ensure the success of the scheme, and, in particular, they would draw attention to the following ways in which the help of authorities can be given, (*a*) by facilitating the formation of units in provided and aided secondary schools in their areas, (*b*) by encouraging pupils to join local units on leaving school, (*c*) by giving every opportunity to teachers in schools under their control to apply for commissions and to attend training courses. 75,000 boys enrolled in the Corps during the first fortnight of its existence, and A.T.C's. have already been formed at a number of our leading public schools. For full details of the scheme, application should be made to the Director of Pre-entry Training, Air Ministry, Adastral House, London, W.C. 2.

Stock-keeping in Schools.—In the latest addition to "The Schools in War-time" series, the Board of Education ask schools which have not hitherto kept stock of any kind to consider carefully whether it is not now possible for them to extend their activities in this direction, both to increase food production and to make the maximum use possible of canteen and kitchen waste. The pamphlet gives useful hints on the keeping of pigs, poultry, rabbits, and bees, and makes suggestions for the enlisting of expert advice.

Regulations Issued by the Board. — Regulations issued by the Board of Education in January deal with (1) expenditure on air-raid shelters for schools; these ensure that such expenditure, incurred after October 19, 1940, shall count for 100 per cent grant where the shelters are available out of school hours for the general public; (2) adult education; these enable the Board to assess grant according to the character, extent, and cost of tutorial and other classes which, owing to war conditions, do not comply with normal regulations. The minimum requirements for class attendance are also modified; (3) salary bonus; superannuation contributions must be paid on the bonus recently granted to teachers whose salary is less than £260.

Age of Admission to Training Colleges.—The Board of Education have decided, after a review of all the available facts, to prescribe 17 years of age on October 1 in the year of admission as the minimum age of admission for men students to training colleges in 1941 and until further notice. The proposal contained in Circular 1533 that the age should be 18 on December 31 in the year of admission is therefore withdrawn. The minimum age of admission for women students will, however, be as stated in Circular 1533, namely 18 on December 31 in the year of admission.

Travel and Subsistence Allowances to Teachers.—Some local education authorities have experienced difficulty in transferring teachers with family responsibilities from one part of their area to another because of the difficulty and cost of obtaining fresh accommodation. Such transference is necessary in order to make the best possible use of such men teachers as remain and to avoid leaving large boys' schools with few or no men teachers. The Board of Education are accordingly prepared to recognize for grant reasonable expenditure incurred by authorities on the payment of travelling and subsistence allowances to teachers who are moved temporarily from one part to another of the area of the same authority, subject to the following conditions: (*a*) that the teacher is moved by the authority for reasons arising out of the war, and not at his own request nor as a result of promotion; (*b*) that the teacher is moved to a distance from his home too great for ordinary daily travel; (*c*) that the allowances compare reasonably with those payable to evacuated teachers. These arrangements are not applicable to teachers who leave the service of one authority and enter that of another.

The New Proclamation.—The Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford, with the authority of the Minister of Labour and National Service, has issued the following statement on the situation created in the university by the Proclamation of January 29: (1) No men to whom the Proclamation of January 29 applies will be called up before the end of March. (2) The calling up of any man already in residence who is taking a university examination in June 1941, and who will not be over the age of 20 on June 30, will be deferred until the end of his examination. (3) The arrangements under which application may be made for postponement of calling-up on the ground of exceptional hardship are to be continued. (4) Men whose calling-up has already been postponed are not affected by the Proclamation. They will not be called up until the end

(*Continued on page* 103)

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of the period of postponement which has already been granted. (5) Freshmen, as well as other undergraduates, who are studying science, including mathematics, may apply to the Joint Recruiting Board, which may in suitable cases recommend deferment of calling-up until the end of the course of study. (6) The reservation of medical students is unaffected by the Proclamation; the extension of the reservation to all such students is being considered.

Registration of the 19's.—Under present arrangements the University Joint Recruiting Boards can recommend the deferment of the calling-up of men at universities who have started a full-time course for a specialized honours degree in engineering, metallurgy, chemistry, physics, geology, the biological sciences, mathematics, or statistics or who have started a course for a pass degree in engineering or metallurgy. This arrangement will now be extended to boys in their last year at school who intend, if possible, to proceed direct from school to a university for the purpose of taking one of the courses of study set out, show promise, and are likely to complete such a course successfully. Headmasters are asked to bring this to the notice of any of their pupils who may be affected. The Board of Education have issued a memorandum of guidance to headmasters on the procedure to be adopted.

Men Teachers with Certain Specialist Qualifications.—Teachers possessing qualifications in certain scientific and technical subjects have been invited to communicate with the Ministry of Labour Central Register. Men with these qualifications are urgently needed both for specialists' work in the armed Forces and for employment in war industry and in research. In order to secure that men with the appropriate qualifications are employed where they can give the most useful service, regard being had at the same time to the requirements of the schools, the Ministry of Labour and National Service, after consultation with the Service Departments, with the Board of Education, and with the Scottish Education Department, have undertaken to ascertain the present occupations and addresses of men holding university degrees in mathematics, physics, chemistry, or engineering, who since the outbreak of war have left the teaching profession either for service in the armed Forces or for civilian employment, including employment in Government departments. The Ministry are enlisting the co-operation of local education authorities and governing bodies.

Religion in the Schools.—Mr. J. Chuter Ede, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, at a meeting of the Surrey Education Committee, presented the Report of the Committee's Religious Advisory Body, of which he had been chairman since 1937. He said that their interim report had recommended a hymn-book and suggestions for school worship which had been adopted and had been warmly welcomed in the schools. They now submitted a new agreed syllabus of religious instruction for pupils with an age range from three to fifteen years. The Bishops of Southwark and Guildford had approved the syllabus for use in Church schools, and therefore it could be hoped that, for the first time in Surrey, Church and council schools would use for school worship and for Biblical teaching agreed common volumes. If those who had read the Archbishops' statement and appeal studied the syllabus in its light, they would find that by adopting the report the committee would, as far as the present law allowed, give practical effect to the suggestions put forward on behalf of the Church without in any way violating their obligations to other citizens. The syllabus aimed at making the children realize that the continuous effort of Christian endeavour is to extend on earth the Kingdom of God founded on principles of brotherhood, mercy, justice, truth, and fair dealing: that this task has always called for energy, courage, faith, and sacrifice: that Christ's followers tread a narrow and difficult way, faithful unto death: and that a living Christ is with them always, even to the end of the world. An especially valuable chapter for the senior children dealt with problems of religion and life. The last paragraph gave fitting application to the whole syllabus: "The task before individual Christians and the Christian community is to assimilate Christ's principles, and by Bible study, thought, and prayer to see how these principles apply to the life and problems of their own day, and to carry out in action what they believe to be right." Upon inspiring the individual with the courage to carry out in action what he believed to be right depended the future of every decency that distinguished the lives of free men from those of the slaves and victims of the gangsters who had seized power over most of Europe outside these islands. The advisory body reached the conclusion that, if religious instruction were to hold its proper place in the school, the book used must not be inferior in appearance to those used in secular subjects. They accordingly recommended that the school Bible should be a volume complying with that requirement.

Religious Education.—A new national movement for the furtherance of religious education forms part of a comprehensive plan which has been prepared by the National Society, as the Central Council of the Church for Religious Education. It is proposed to seek collaboration with Diocesan authorities, the Free Churches, administrators, and teachers. It is hoped to start the movement with a series of meetings in all parts of the country arranged on diocesan initiative and in this connexion the Standing Committee of the National Society has invited its vice-chairman, Canon Woodard, to give full time and attention to this educational service. Invitations may be addressed to him at Sutton Vicarage, Ely, Cambridgeshire. Canon Woodard has long experience and ripe wisdom; and his hereditary and personal devotion to the cause of education in many departments will give confidence that the movement will be vigorously initiated and led.

Growth of the Youth Movement.—Mr. J. Chuter Ede, in a recent speech delivered at the inauguration of clubs for boys and girls at Worcester Park, Surrey, said that the National Youth Committee had reviewed the results of their activities throughout the country, and were gratified at the growth of the Movement in most areas. Of the 146 authorities responsible for higher education in the country, 141 of them had set up committees and were actively engaged in providing constructive outlets for the leisure hours of boys and girls. Steps were being taken to arouse interest in the few districts in which no local committee had yet been formed. The committee had noted with pleasure the increasing co-operation between the established voluntary organizations and the local education authorities. They realized the difficulties inevitably encountered by expansion programmes in time of war, and were encouraged by the success of the persistent efforts to overcome these obstacles. They were particularly impressed by the enthusiasm aroused by schemes for Youth Service Corps of various kinds, and regarded such practical evidences of the response of youth to the calls of duty as a fulfilment of the moral and patriotic ideals which the Movement inspired. In an extension of this and similar existing work, in the increase of opportunities for recreative physical training, and in the constant watch for leaders among the young people themselves, appeared to be the most appropriate lines of advance in the immediate future. These three phases of the Movement afforded ample scope in present conditions for the employment of the leisure hours of youth, and would enable those concerned to seize many opportunities for the training of character, mind, and body. Clubs such as those he was opening brought young people together in pleasant surroundings which made co-operation easy, and would afford many chances of organizing service to meet the calls of the locality and the nation.

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Cambridge Accounts. — *The Cambridge University Reporter* publishes the detailed accounts of the university for the year ended July 31, 1940. Receipts amounting to £268,801 include the Treasury grant of £120,100. About half the receipts are transferred to the University Education Fund and this fund receives an approximately equal amount in the form of fees. Degree fees amounting to £6,287 include 737 B.A.'s, 516 M.A.'s, and 49 Ph.D.'s. College contributions to the 'chest' to a net amount of £40,974 are scheduled, the largest contribution coming from Trinity College at £10,550, followed by St. John's at £7,766. The accounts as a whole show surprisingly few direct indications of war conditions, though receipts for examination and degree fees are presumably greatly reduced. The desire for economy is possibly reflected in the entry of £1 5s. 6d. received by the university for waste paper.

A University in a Prison.—*The Manchester Guardian* has published an interesting account of the first camp for prisoners of war in Germany to take up the question of serious and systematic study. The prisoners have instituted a 'university' with a regular time-table of lectures on mathematics, languages, agriculture, engineering, common law, criminal law, history, and other subjects. The educational book section of the Prisoners of War Department of the Red Cross and St. John War Organization is in regular contact with the prisoners' camp through the International Red Cross, and receives statements on the type of educational books required. A scheme of reading has been drawn up by an Oxford don for a university honours school of English. The idea is that a prisoner may be examined by a voluntary body of university teachers, who would be empowered to award a certificate or diploma to those who reached the necessary honours standard. This voluntary body in turn would hope to secure such recognition from the universities of Oxford and Cambridge as would give the diploma or certificate an official status. It is hoped to develop this scheme for other subjects. A number of advanced study books have already been sent to prison camps, and it is hoped to meet all necessary calls from prisoners.

Air-Raid Shelters in Clubs.—As a result of investigations carried out under the direction of Miss Ellen Wilkinson, M.P., Joint Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Home Security, arrangements have been made to provide shelter accommodation in boys' and girls' clubs throughout the country. This scheme will give a much needed stimulus to the continued activities of these clubs by providing shelters which may be used in the evenings or, if necessary, as dormitories. Local authorities are being encouraged to build such shelters in areas where dormitory shelters are being provided for the general public. The cost of constructing shelters in boys' and girls' clubs will be reimbursed by the Government. It is a condition, however, that any surplus space in the shelters shall be made available to the public in special emergency if required. Accommodation for club members will normally be reserved by ticket.

Lloyd's Register Scholarship.—The General Committee of Lloyd's Register of Shipping offer a scholarship, valued at £100 per annum and tenable for three years, to be awarded in May, 1941, on the results of a competitive examination to be held by The Institute of Marine Engineers. The scholarship is intended to assist marine engineering students to take a university course in engineering subjects. The age limit is 18 years to 23 years. The closing date for entries is April 8, 1941. Further particulars and entrance forms may be obtained on application to the Secretary, The Institute of Marine Engineers, 73 Amersham Road, High Wycombe, Bucks.

Travelling Library in London.—The first travelling library to be established in London, a large motor-van carrying 2,000 books, was given a send-off from St. Pancras Town Hall on February 8 by the Mayor, Alderman E. Evans.

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NEW BOOKS

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

By B. A. YEAXLEE, O.B.E., M.A., B.Litt., Ph.D., Reader in Educational Psychology, Oxford University

FOR twenty years and more there has been a great shyness about teaching the Fourth Gospel in schools. One-sided scholarship, corrected during the last decade, affirmed that in comparison with the Synoptics it contained little factual material, and teachers said that its presentation of Jesus was too mystical and theological for boys and girls. We have now been shown by Prof. C. H. Dodd and others that the Synoptic, Johannine, and Pauline teachings are essentially the same, and research has established the importance of the historical element in " St. John ", while the late Sir Edwyn Hoskyns, in the impressive and exhaustive Commentary to which he devoted so much of his life, declared : " Whatever the Fourth Gospel may be, it is not a text-book of metaphysics. Primarily it is the text-book of the parish priest and the inspiration of the straightforward layman." And now the more recent Agreed Syllabuses (*e.g.* the Middlesbrough and the new Cambridgeshire) have given it a considerable place in the material to be used by the teacher.

What we have lacked is a brief, simple, but thorough and scholarly Commentary for school use. This has now been provided by Mr. R. F. Bailey, himself a lay Headmaster. *St. John's Gospel, a Commentary for Schools*[1] is in effect a running exposition, with an admirable introduction which sketches the background and explains the purpose of the book. There are no fussy notes about pedantic details. Neither is there any facile handling of those inexhaustible truths which the writer of the Gospel sets forth in words of one syllable and figures drawn from everyday life. What Mr. Bailey does for us is to enable us to read the Gospel for ourselves and with our pupils in a way that lights up what Jesus was, and bears upon our own lives as they are and as they may become. If this unpretentious commentary is known and used as it should be, we shall soon find the Fourth Gospel restored to its proper place in our schools.

Prof. A. G. Baldwin's *The Drama of our Religion*[2] is quite another type of book. Meant for use as a secondary school text-book and by parents who wish to give their children an intelligent understanding of the Bible, it has the merits of lucidity, conciseness, and historical objectivity. Much in it is stimulating from the standpoint of ethics and social ideals. But the development of Hebrew and Jewish religion is represented as an evolution in men's ideas and convictions, not as the story of God's self-revealing and a record of His action in history. Jesus is portrayed as a " spiritual genius of Nazareth " whose whole life and teachings constitute an answer to the question he had been facing (in the Temptations) : " What does it mean to be a son of God ? " It is suggested that at Jesus' baptism " his own inherent humility of spirit made him feel the need for repentance ". While there is an excellent chapter on the reasons why Jesus was crucified there is no mention whatever of the resurrection. Prof. Baldwin helps us to get away from sentimental and theological prepossessions, but he does not help us to lay hold of the open secret of the Bible—that it was God who spoke, first in the prophets and then in a Son who was the manifestation of His own being.

Two very practical little books for both parents and teachers are *The Christian and Education*, by the Headmaster of Leys, Dr. W. G. Humphrey, and *A Boy's Right to Religion*, by the Chaplain, the Rev. Conrad Skinner.[3] Dr. Humphrey maintains that the aim of education is twofold—to promote the individual's capacity for worship and the knowledge of God, and to enable him to work out a synthesis of secular knowledge so that he may have a Christian philosophy to guide him in the conduct of his daily life. This demands a reform of our educational system so that it may influence the reconstruction of society on Christian principles, and also a recognition that the teaching of religion in schools and universities is futile if it remains merely academic. Mr. Skinner points out that the home is inescapably concerned with the child's earliest religious experiences and attitudes, while later the school can fulfil its task of religious education only if parents cooperate with teachers. He outlines the purpose of both instruction and worship as parts of school life in a way which will set teachers thinking and open the eyes of many parents. Not much longer than articles in a quarterly review, these booklets are not fugitive. They are the mature fruits of reflection upon experience, fresh, timely, and full of vitality.

Teachers who have not yet read the *Christian News-Letter Books*[4] will be well advised to turn to them for aid in thinking out some of the questions relating to both the aims and the content of Christian education which the war has made so urgent. Mr. Middleton Murry's *Europe in Travail* emphasizes the part that unemployment has played in the sequence of events since 1918, the necessity of regarding this surplus of labour as a reserve of energy for creative social action, and the imperative need of educating the whole community in Christian aims and values if there is to be any hope of a new order, the alternative being a crescendo of wars. Prof. Oliver Quick's *Christianity and Justice* deals trenchantly with the deeper issues of Christian motives and morals as the fact of war has focused them, and he has some luminous passages on suffering and sacrifice. Dr. Oldham's *The Resurrection of Christendom* defines a Christian society as " consciously directed towards the true ends of man's existence understood in the light of the Christian revelation—a society leavened by Christian insights and standards ". It shows the relevance of the Council on the Christian Faith and Life newly established by the Churches to the solution of urgent problems concerning the religious task, a social philosophy, political action, a widespread initiative, and the contribution of science. Dr. William Paton's *The Message of the World-wide Church* begins by affirming that Christianity is not primarily a means to a new social order but a new way of life in itself, and proceeds to show the implications of the little-recognized fact that " the last hundred years have seen the most rapid and most widespread extension of the Christian Church that all the centuries of our era can show ". The increasing unity of the Church has stood, to a remarkable degree, the strain of war, but the nature of this unity must not be misunderstood : " The Church as a whole is full of people facing choices that carry them into separate camps . . . the bond that unites us all does not depend upon an avoidance of conflicting action, but only upon a final submission to God as Judge and Christ as Saviour." The true unity of the Church is in the life of prayer.

The writers lay no claim to finality but they make the real questions clear and set them in the light of Christian certainties and the Christian hope.

[1] **The Gospel of St. John : an Introductory Commentary.** By R. F. BAILEY. (5s. net. Student Christian Movement Press.)

[2] **The Drama of our Religion.** By A. G. BALDWIN. (9s 6d. net. New York. Oxford University Press.)

[3] *(a)* **The Christian and Education.** By Dr. W. G. HUMPHREY. *(b)* **A Boy's Right to Religion : a Schoolmaster's Appeal to Parents.** By C. SKINNER. (1s. net each. The Epworth Press.)

[4] **Christian News-Letter Books.** No. 1 : The Resurrection of Christendom. By J. H. OLDHAM. No. 2 : Europe in Travail. By J. MIDDLETON MURRY. No. 4 : The Message of the World-Wide Church. By W. PATON. No. 5 : Christianity and Justice. By Prof. O. C. QUICK. (1s. net each. The Sheldon Press.)

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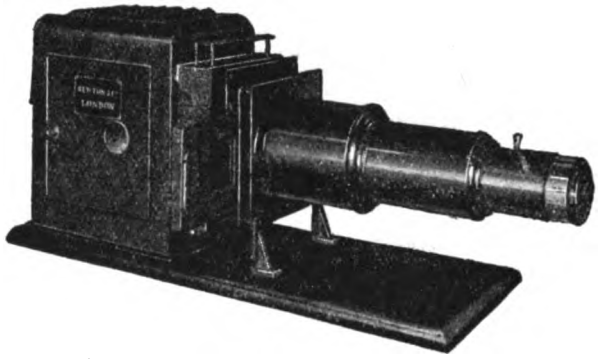

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RELIGIOUS TEACHING IN THE SCHOOLS

By T. RAYMONT

TWO small but significant books have recently appeared bearing on the subject of religious education, each of them, we think, meriting the attention of teachers. One of them, by Mr. Arnold Lloyd,[1] can hardly be said to emanate from any particular church. It is written in the broad spirit which one associates with the Society of Friends. The author begins by quoting from three sources—one of them being a now notorious leading article in *The Times* newspaper—to the general effect that our system of national education allows our future citizens to have a purely heathen upbringing. He accepts the assertion that young people to-day are " happy pagans ", who have been brought to that condition by the indifference and neglect of their elders, and by the alleged heathen upbringing. The main part of his book consists of the testimony of a number of young people that they are responsive to religious influences, such as " corporate worship growing out of silence, private prayer, and quiet meditation in the country ". These young people speak for themselves, out of their own experiences of " a wide variety of denominational worship, from High Church to Quaker ". Their testimony is quite impressive. The author is careful to state, however, that " they may not be representative of their generation, since it is clear from much of what they have written that they have enjoyed advantages denied to many of their contemporaries ". We are not convinced that happy paganism is really more rampant now that it used to be. But in any case the author is too wise to throw the entire responsibility upon the schools.

Mr. Lloyd offers a definition of the religious attitude which requires careful study, because it reads like a summary of the philosophy of religion. The case is otherwise with Dr. J. W. Skinner, the author of the next book here noticed.[2] Was it not Paley who said of some one that he knew nothing against him except that he was a popular preacher ? But Paley was a dull dog, and Dr. Skinner prefers the way of the popular preacher. His definition is evangelical rather than philosophical in its appeal. He takes the risk that " a ' high ' ecclesiastical bull may buck or bellow ", for he prefers " taurine vivacity " to " bovine placidity ". The Christian, he says, believes thus and thus, and the Christian's translation of that belief is seen in the endeavour to do to his neighbour as he would be done by. Dr. Skinner takes the broad view of every aspect of his subject. If he stands for securing youthful allegiance to a particular communion, it is only because he believes that method to be, at present, the surest way to making youthful Christians. The Bible must have a fair chance of being known, and, if its difficulties are to be frankly faced with eager boys and girls, the teacher must be equipped with adequate knowledge. School services must be sincere, simple, and short. As to addresses, Dr. Skinner's advice reminds one of the Methodist preacher's motto—no souls saved after the first twenty minutes. He is the very soul of candour as regards the failure of his own church to tackle the problem of the children, or even to see that there is a problem. He pleads for drastic remedies, which would enable ministers to give less attention to their staid and phlegmatic sheep, and at least half their time and attention to their frisking lambs. And to teachers he administers a pointed reminder. The school cannot justly be made wholly responsible. Yet remember that no child, whatever else in Britain he may escape, can escape school. The limitations of his position do not permit Dr. Skinner to face all the difficulties of the ordinary teacher in a State school. Nevertheless he has produced a helpful and stimulating essay.

[1] **God in the Experience of Youth.** By A. LLOYD. (1s. 3d. Stroud : Walter Collins.)

[2] **Nurseries of Christians : a Call for Christian Schools.** By Dr. J. W. SKINNER. 1s. The Epworth Press.)

THE Cambridgeshire Education Committee, on the completion of the new Syllabus of Religious Teaching in 1939, asked the Institute of Christian Education to undertake the production of a handbook to accompany the syllabus. The institute accordingly formed an editorial group, half of whom had shared in the production of the syllabus.

The principles upon which the Cambridgeshire syllabus and the present handbook are based are those set forth in the relevant passages of the Spens Report, published after the syllabus had been completed. " No boy or girl ", says that report, " can be counted as properly educated unless he or she has been made aware of . . . the existence of a religious interpretation of life. The traditional form which that interpretation has taken in this country is Christian, and the principal justification for giving a place in the curriculum to the study of the Scriptures is that the Bible is the classic book of Christianity." The teacher's primary purpose, proceeds the report, is achieved when he has made clear to his pupils what the book meant for those for whom it was written, though he will be ready to face the difficulties felt by the intelligent boy or girl of the present day. And indisputably the teacher who adds to his knowledge a genuine religious faith is the best teacher.

On such general lines Dr. Yeaxlee has written a handbook in which every page is packed with information and suggestion. He has not provided a commentary. There was no need to add to the good commentaries which already exist. Nor has he supplied a book of ' lesson notes '. No teacher who is competent to handle the subject with senior pupils would desire that kind of help. He has rather aimed at elucidating the syllabus, and at supplying a background of information " at points where the teacher might otherwise find it necessary to dig among more academic works in order to ascertain the facts or discover the general trend of scholarly opinion ". He has achieved that aim with outstanding care and thoroughness.

As Dr. Yeaxlee himself implies, he has not written for the specialist in Biblical knowledge. It is equally evident, as one turns his pages, that he has not written for the teacher who does not regard the Scripture lesson as having a serious claim upon his time and attention. Even the teacher whom Dr. Yeaxlee saves from the trouble of digging " among more academic works " will yet have a good deal of digging to do, if he is to make adequate use of this handbook. The outlook which is implicit in this handbook should be carefully considered by the authorities of all training colleges and university training departments, particularly by any which have not yet risen to the requirements indicated in the corresponding passages of the Spens Report.

* **Handbook to the Cambridgeshire Syllabus of Religious Teaching for Schools, Senior Section.** By Dr. B. A. YEAXLEE. (4s. 6d. net. Student Christian Movement Press.)

Art and Handicraft

Figure-Drawing for Beginners

By DOROTHY FURNISS. (11s. net. Harrap.)

In this book the daughter of a famous Victorian illustrator publishes much technical information about use of media, ways of drawing, and " the business side " of figure drawing. The material is derived from knowledge gained through practical experience as a figure illustrator. From the point of view of the teacher who wishes to foster a child's growth of expression in drawing, not only is the title misleading, but the book itself has nothing to do with " beginners " in that sense of the term. The aim of the book is rather to give information which may be useful to the illustrator or to the lay person wishing to make sketches of various ' types ' on a ' cruise '. The book deals with many technical points, including the " packing and posting " of a drawing to a publisher, which might be useful to students in a school of art engaged on a course in figure illustration work for commercial art purposes.

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Biography

A London Family Between the Wars

By M. VIVIAN HUGHES. (7s. 6d. net. Humphrey Milford : Oxford University Press.)

Many of our readers are already familiar with Mrs. Hughes' volumes of reminiscences, *A London Child of the Seventies*, *A London Girl of the Eighties*, *A London Home in the Nineties*, and will welcome this story of a London family which removed to the country after the death of their head in the last war. Their activities during the years of peace are those that happen to ordinary folk. On that account they will appeal all the more to readers all over the world whose eyes are now turned to London as the centre of the war of Britain, and will awaken their sympathy for all those London families now driven from their old homes to take refuge elsewhere.

Hearts and Pomegranates: the Story of Forty-five Years, 1875–1920

By Dame KATHARINE FURSE. (15s. net. Peter Davies.)

Dame Katharine Furse was the daughter of John Addington Symonds and the wife of Charles Furse, the painter. She was brought up in the Swiss Alps, and paid many visits to Italy. At Frankfurt in 1907 she had the first experience of the Jewish situation in Germany. The restaurant where she dined had a notice " No Jews Admitted ". In 1907 she paid a visit with the Northcliffes to Canada and the United States. She has much of interest to say about many of the personalities with whom she came into contact. There are a number of portraits, including those of herself at various ages, her parents, and her husband. The somewhat cryptic title of the autobiography is explained by a reference to Gerarde's *Herbal*. This story of a full and interesting life, " written as an honest and sincere expression of deep feeling ", is offered to " all who care to read a little of experiences which have their roots in two centuries—in what seemed to be the settled Victorian era, and also in the modern kaleidoscope of changing situations ".

Arctic Pilot: Life and Work on North Canadian Air Routes

The Experiences of WALTER E. GILBERT as told to KATHLEEN SHACKLETON. (7s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

This is the story of a great figure in the history of flying, Walter E. Gilbert, as told to the daughter of another great pioneer. Douglas Mackay had intended to write a book in collaboration with Gilbert. When he was killed in an air crash in the United States in 1938, his wife, Alice MacKay, the first woman pilot in British Columbia, suggested that Miss Shackleton should become responsible for its compilation. The book is dedicated to the memory of Douglas MacKay and James A. Richardson, both of whom have been hailed as " the Father of Canadian Air Transport ". This story of the life and work in the North Canadian air routes, " one of the greatest modern adventures ", is, as might have been expected, full of incidents, thrilling, instructive, and humorous. There are a useful map and a number of illustrations, including portraits of the chief personalities concerned. This is the sort of book which provides both exciting reading and valuable local colour for the teacher and student of geography.

Classics

Four Latin Authors: Extracts from Caesar, Vergil, Livy, and Ovid

Edited, with Introductions, Notes and Vocabulary, by E. C. KENNEDY. (3s. Cambridge University Press.)

A bargain for the last year or so before S.C. The notes are simple and give real help, and though the editor lets slip " *patria* can have its first *a* either long or short " (meaning that it sometimes sounds like the *a* in *mater*?) he has a really ingenious rule for scanning hexameters which it would be unfair to divulge here.

English

Things New and Old : Readings in Prose and Poetry

Assembled by R. WILSON and J. HARVARD-WATTS. (Reading for Action, 4a.) (2s. 8d. Nelson.)

This is a very interesting miscellany. The prose is almost entirely informative and of a scientific and technical nature (*e.g.* The Diesel Engine, Flying an Aeroplane, Sailing, Making Olive Oil, The Migration of Birds) while the poetry is short and for the most part imaginative. The poems, which include *Trade Winds* by Masefield, *Cat's Meat Man* by Harold Munro, *I Met at Eve* by Walter de la Mare, and Siegfried Sassoon's lovely " *Everyone suddenly burst out singing* ", should prove attractive.

Round the Year Stories : The Autumn Book

By MARIBEL EDWIN. (2s. 6d. Nelson.)

The year has now been covered by Mrs. Edwin in this admirable series of nature readers. In each book, *Spring*, *Summer*, *Autumn*, *Winter*, the material is divided first into months and then into weeks, and for each week there is a story about an animal which could be seen at that time of year. (For example, the stories for September in *The Autumn Book* are about a heron, a skylark, a shrew, a red deer, and a swallow.) These books are designed to help the teacher in planning nature study lessons and to encourage the children to observe for themselves. The print and make-up generally are attractive.

Plays for Boys and Girls

Edited by J. HAMPDEN. (Everyman's Library.) (2s. 6d. net. Dent.)

This is a welcome addition to Everyman's Library, which already includes nearly 1,000 popular volumes. There is a Christmas mumming play, adaptations from *The Critic* and *Twelfth Night*, and plays by Evelyn Smith, Clemence Dane, John Hampden, Rosalind Vallance, Mona Swann, L. du Garde Peach, and other modern writers. All are suitable for production by young beginners. At the beginning of each play there is a statement about acting rights, and the acting notes and stage plans at the end will be found most helpful.

Fifteen Poets : Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton, Dryden, Pope, Cowper, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Shelley, Byron, Keats, Browning, Tennyson, Arnold

(6s. net. Oxford : Clarendon Press.)

This is an anthology with a difference. It contains selections from fifteen of the great masters of English poetry from Chaucer to Arnold. The passages are chosen to cover, so far as possible, the whole range of the poet's work, and so to provide a link between the ordinary anthology and the complete works. There are short appreciations of each poet's work, short biographies, and a glossary of proper names. Difficult words are explained in footnotes.

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Rare Prologues and Epilogues, 1642–1700

Edited by Prof. AUTREY N. WILEY. (15s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

The English Prologues and Epilogues published in the seventeenth century are scattered widely among the libraries of Great Britain and the United States. They are often indifferently catalogued, and it is not easy for the student to obtain access to them. In this volume Prof. Wiley has brought together forty-two of the most interesting and valuable of these Prologues and Epilogues. There is an admirable general introduction, and each of the sections has a short introduction and a biographical note. There are also short lists of Prologues and Epilogues separately published, authors and speakers, seventeenth century miscellanies containing Prologues and Epilogues, booksellers and printers, with an index to the first lines and a good general index. There are several valuable and interesting illustrations. All students of historical and dramatic literature will be grateful to Prof. Wiley for the scholarship and labour which he has devoted to the production of this work.

Plays of the Family Goodman

By L. DU GARDE PEACH. Book I: 1485–1666. Book II: 1720–1914. (1s. 8d. each. Pitman.)

Grannie Gray: Children's Plays and Games, with Music and Without

By ELEANOR FARJEON. (3s. 6d. net. Dent.)

Plays of the Family Goodman follow in episodic fashion the fortunes of an English family through successive generations from 1485 to 1914. As material illustrative of middle-class social life during this period, they will be a useful adjunct to the historical text-book; as drama they tend to limp a little. The deliberate simplification of action, dialogue, and settings, which leaves them, it must be admitted, a trifle lacking in zest and vigour, has the advantage of rendering them well adapted to class-room production; but it is doubtful whether a generation of children used to the strong meat of the cinema will not vote them rather a bore. The author has compromised with a fair measure of success in the difficult problem of 'pish-tushery' in dialogue.

Eleanor Farjeon, in her new book of plays and singing-games—*Grannie Gray*—has the supreme merit of writing for children without a touch of patronage. The collection is dedicated to the children of Sewardstone Road School, a dedication which is no empty compliment, for the plays are designed for and excellently suited to the capacities of school children, and demand no more elaborate a theatre than most school halls or even class-rooms can with ingenuity provide. The final item in the book, "Snow White", strikes a bold note and discards the strictly dramatic form in favour of narrative interspersed with action. The use of this type of story-play is much to be commended for less formal dramatic performances in school, and quite young children should not find it hard to borrow this method of presenting their favourite stories before they are old enough to attempt the composition of complete plays.

Notes on *The Testament of Beauty*

By N. C. SMITH. Third Edition. (5s. net. Oxford University Press.)

All lovers of *The Testament of Beauty* will welcome this new edition of Mr. Nowell Smith's Notes. Their object is, as is stated in the preface, "simply to assist the readers of *The Testament of Beauty* who feel the need of assistance". The poem abounds in philosophical language and historical allusions which need interpretation to the ordinary reader. There is a short biography, with a thoughtful and helpful introduction. The various sections of the poem are carefully examined, and this analysis will help the reader to a fuller understanding of the poem's message. The fact that this is the third edition of the Notes is a sufficient indication of their merit.

Geography

Africa

By L. S. SUGGATE. Third Edition Revised. (Harrap's New Geographical Series.) (7s. 6d. Harrap.)

This deservedly popular sixth-form book has been revised thoroughly. Even the climatic data have been modified to allow for the minute changes in the average temperatures since the first edition was published. French colonial trade values have been converted into sterling by allowing for differences in the rates of exchange of the pre-war years. Neither commercial nor military aspects have been stressed, but nevertheless the book contains what is probably the most up-to-date account of Africa for the reader who wishes to understand the geographical background of the present war and the situation and importance of the African possessions of Free France and the Vichy Government. No other text-book, for example, describes the development of Italian East Africa since the conquest of Abyssinia. There is an interesting new section on insect life in which it is suggested that the cattle population of Africa could easily be doubled if the danger of trypanosome infection could be removed. There are many new maps and some of the old ones have been revised. In particular new roads and air routes are shown. There is one slip where Fig. 118 is described as being on page 34 instead of on page 343. A new chapter deals with modern problems and particularly with the effects of European penetration and the overstressing of the importance of commercial crops and mining whereby young men are lured from their tribes to the mines and plantations.

The Map Approach to Modern Problems, 1919–1939

By W. E. BROWN and A. W. COYSH. (2s. 3d. University Tutorial Press.)

The Map Approach to Modern Problems is an important addition to the small group of elementary books which deal with geographical factors in history. Books of this type are valuable because they simplify the study of foreign affairs by bringing them into relief against their geographical background. This book is apparently intended mainly for use in Workers' Educational Association classes and secondary schools, but there is no reason why it should not be offered for sale on ordinary bookstalls, for at the present time interest in international affairs is not confined to academic circles.

A First Course in Modern Geography

By E. G. HODGKISON and D. M. PREECE. Second Edition. (3s. 9d. University Tutorial Press.)

This book is suitable for use in lower and middle forms. Its sections on General Geography, the British Isles, and the Major Climatic Regions are illustrated by clear sketch-maps and excellent photographs.

A Map Book of Africa and South America: for Juniors and the Middle Forms

By A. FERRIDAY. (1s. 9d. Limp Cloth, 2s. Macmillan.)

A Map Book of North America: for Middle and School Certificate Forms

By A. FERRIDAY. (Paper Cover, 1s. 9d. Limp Cloth, 2s. Macmillan.)

The map book of Africa and South America is intended for the use of junior and middle forms, and the treatment is simpler and less detailed than in the map book of North America which covers much of the groundwork of the Higher School Certificate course. Both books contain carefully selected exercises and questions. First-rate notes accompany the North American maps, but it is a pity that on page 5 it is stated that "temperature *increases* by 1°F. for every 300 ft. ascent".

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History

The War Speeches of William Pitt the Younger

Selected by R. COUPLAND. Third Edition. (5s. net. Oxford : Clarendon Press.)

This new edition of the war speeches of William Pitt appears at the right moment. There is a close parallel between Britain's struggle with Napoleon at the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries, and our present fight against Hitler. As the Prime Minister says in his foreword :

" I welcome this reissue of the historic speeches with which Pitt instructed and heartened the British people in their battle for freedom a century and a half ago. It is fortifying to remember that this is not the first time that we have confronted a great continental military power, seeking to dominate Europe. . . . It is stirring, too, in these days to catch the echo of Pitt's voice bidding the House of Commons to face the danger of invasion with that ' just confidence which neither despises nor dreads the enemy ', and to remember that we were fighting ' for our very existence as a nation, for our very name as Englishmen, for everything dear and valuable to man on this side of the grave '."

English History in English Fiction

By Sir JOHN MARRIOTT. (8s. 6d. net. Blackie.)

The eminent author of this book expresses the hope that teachers of all grades above the elementary will appreciate his effort to bring history and fiction into fruitful relation, and that readers of all ages may be encouraged to use historical novels as complementary to their study of history. He hopes, in fact, that the book will find a place in every school library and in most free libraries. It will, we think, be well for education if his hope is fulfilled. The book combines an almost youthful enthusiasm for a good story with the thoroughness of the mature scholar, so that the reader always feels under guidance which is both safe and pleasant. The author does not trespass upon the province of the literary critic. Nor does he discuss the place of history in fiction. He writes as a historian, seeking to show the part that historical fiction may play as an adjunct to the study of history. This he does in eighteen chapters, starting from the Roman occupation and ending with the Victorian jubilees. The book does not compete with existing guides to historical fiction, but should have an honoured place of its own.

The Mongol Empire : its Rise and Legacy

By M. PRAWDIN. Translated by E. and C. PAUL. (21s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

This dramatic account of the rise and fall of the Mongol Empire under Jenghiz Khan and his successors has already been translated into many languages and over 100,000 copies of it have been sold. This story of the creation in a single life-time of the widest world empire that has ever existed, and of its final overthrow, will interest both the student of history and the ordinary reader who likes an exciting tale. It is of special interest for us in these days when we are witnessing another attempt at world domination. The book is well documented.

Europe in the Nineteenth Century

By D. G. O. AYERST. (5s. Cambridge University Press.)

This is a workmanlike book, packed with information. It is fitted for those who take their history seriously, and do not need to be lured on their way by anecdotes or illustrations. It is a severe book, presented on crowded pages, and encased in a drab, depressing cover. It well repays careful study, however. Particularly notable are its appendices containing (1) a dictionary of political terms ; (2) a biographical dictionary, and (3) a list of treaties. The nineteenth century is generously interpreted as extending from 1789 to 1939 !

A Concise History of Italy : from Prehistoric Times to our Own Day

By L. SALVATORELLI. Translated by B. MIALL. (21s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

Signor Luigi Salvatorelli is one of the ablest of modern Italian historians. He is, indeed, widely recognized as the highest living authorities on his special subject, namely, the political diplomacy of the Papacy. In the present volume he enlarges the sphere of his activity and provides us with a complete survey of Italian history from the time of the primitive cave-man to that of his modern counterpart, the Fascist dictator. It is a brilliant sketch, excellently translated by Mr. Bernard Miall, and beautifully printed by Messrs. Allen & Unwin in their exquisite Fournier type. No other History of Italy at present available can compete with it in respect of either fullness or accuracy.

History of England

By D. M. GLEW and H. PLASKITT. Part 1 : To 1485. Part 2 : 1485–1714. Part 3 : 1714–1934. (Parts 1 and 2, 2s. 6d. each. Part 3, 3s. 9d. University Tutorial Press.)

The main features of these attractive text-books of English History are, first, the number and general excellence of their illustrations ; secondly, the admirable coherence of their narrative—the reader feels that he is being carried steadily from cause to effect ; thirdly, the close association of the history of England with that of the Continent, the Colonies, America, and Asia. Some of the illustrations, it is true, are open to criticism. Too many of them are imaginary, *e.g.* the portraits of the Kings prior to Richard II. Some are demonstrably false, *e.g.* that of " Attila and his Huns invading Rome ". A weeding would be an advantage.

The Greeks and the Romans

By D. E. LIMEBEER. Part 1 : The Greeks. Part 2 : The Romans. (2s. 9d. each. Cambridge University Press.)

Scholarly and beautifully illustrated introductory histories of Greece and Rome. They not only sketch the political evolution of the Greeks and the Romans, so amazingly different in character ; but also treat of the cultures of the two peoples and their respective contributions to modern civilization.

Man : an Introduction to History

By A. H. HANSON. (3s. 6d. Bell.)

A competent and interesting sketch of world-history from the Creation to the present day. It treats lightly the political side of the story, emphasizing the development of art, science, and literature. An excellent time-chart gives a backbone to the narrative.

From Serf to Citizen

By W. C. J. WARD. (Book 1, 2s. 8d. Book 2, 2s. 10d. Blackie.)

Book I sketches the political and social history of England from the earliest times to the present day. Book 2 treats of selected topics such as sports and pastimes, foods and drinks, dress and weapons, markets and fairs. Two further books are to follow.

A Federation for Western Europe

By Dr. W. IVOR JENNINGS. (3s. 6d. net. Cambridge University Press.)

" I think that I have raised all the important questions that need to be answered ; I have given answers too ; but they are not the necessary and inevitable answers . . . ". This is the claim that Dr. Jennings makes at the end of his book—and the claim is justified. One refreshing feature of the book is that it starts from theory, and thereby gets its ground-plan clear before beginning the elevation. And, if the ultimate question is not satisfactorily answered—as to what motive power can be mobilized to keep the federation a living reality once it has surmounted its immediate problems—at least the author is fully aware of the difficulty.

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Mathematics

New First Course in the Theory of Equations

By Dr. L. E. DICKSON. (10s. 6d. net. New York: Wiley; London: Chapman & Hall.)

First Course in Theory of Numbers

By Prof. H. N. WRIGHT. (12s. net. New York: Wiley; London: Chapman & Hall.)

Two excellently arranged and very well-produced text-books. The ground covered goes somewhat beyond that of university scholarships or of Pass Degrees. The material included will be familiar to most English mathematicians, though some of the examples will be new to them. The books well deserve the attention of sixth-form mathematical teachers.

Revision Mathematics for School Certificate

By D. HUMPHREY. (4s. Longmans.)

Every teacher of mathematics is familiar with the difficulty of finding suitable occupation for pupils who, having for some reason or other failed in their first attempt at the School Certificate, have to do revision work for a term before a second attempt. This collection of classified examples, mainly taken from previous papers, should be very useful in providing work for such pupils. All the topics found in the elementary mathematics papers of all the examining authorities are included and there are a few useful hints at the head of each section.

The Tutorial Algebra

By Dr. W. BRIGGS and Prof. G. H. BRYAN. Revised and Rewritten by Dr. G. WALKER. Vol. 1: Intermediate Course. (7s. 6d. University Tutorial Press.)

This revision of a well-tried text-book has many good points. It is full and clear; the worked examples are well set out and in most of the topics where difficulty is usually encountered, *e.g.* convergence, inequalities, and rational functions the work is sound and lucid. It is a little surprising that there is no reference to the calculus, especially in the section on rational functions, where the treatment of turning points and maxima and minima could be greatly improved by such methods.

The excessive length of the book is somewhat of a disadvantage. In order to cover the limited syllabus of the Intermediate Examination no fewer than 439 pages are used and, according to the preface, part of Volume II must be read in addition to cover the syllabus of the Higher Certificate Examination. This is a fault which is inherent in a revision of this kind, where the amount of additional matter inserted is rarely balanced by the dropping of an equivalent amount of the original text, and while it may be regarded as a 'fault on the right side', it would present an obstacle to a student who attempted to work from the book without close supervision by an experienced teacher.

Commercial Arithmetic

By F. G. W. BROWN. (6s. Macmillan.)

This is a quite useful book for those pupils who need to qualify in commercial arithmetic and it is divided into two sections corresponding to the two grades of qualification. Throughout the book emphasis is placed on units of measurement used in commerce (*e.g.* a 'square' of timber, a 'rod' of brickwork, &c.), and there are frequent references to the use of tables of all kinds. A chapter on calculating machines is also a pleasing feature.

The ground covered is entirely commercial and it is to be regretted that room could not be found for sections on topics more usually classed as Arithmetic of Citizenship, *e.g.* taxation, rates, banking, and so on. Decimal multiplication is treated entirely by counting the number of decimal places and division by reducing the divisor to a whole number.

The printing is good and clear throughout, though tabular arrangement of some of the logarithmic work might have been an improvement.

Miscellany

Statute Law relating to Employment

By F. N. BALL. (10s. net. Southend-on-Sea: Thames Bank Publishing Co.)

The author has wisely not attempted to deal with all the matters covered by "law relating to employment". He has omitted, for example, trade union law, and only briefly mentioned the Trade Boards Acts. His general method, in dealing with his chosen subjects, has been to discuss the law as it stands at present, referring back, where necessary, to earlier statutes.

He has treated fully the Factories Act, 1937, and the regulations under it, the National Health and Unemployment Insurance Acts, and the Workmen's Compensation Acts, with the Employers' Liability Act, 1880. He deals in less detail with the Fatal Accidents Act, the Shops Acts and the Truck Acts, the two last in appendices. The appendix on Employment of Children is of direct interest to educationists, and might well have been longer, especially in regard to "beneficial employment" under the Education Act of 1936. The treatment of the position of juveniles under the Factories Act and under the Young Persons (Employment) Act, 1938, will also be useful indirectly in dealing with educational problems.

In his interesting appendix Mr. Ball, who condemns the modern practice of delegated legislation, discusses admirably some practical difficulties which arise in connexion with it, notably the multiplicity of Statutory Orders and the cost of purchasing them. Here some local public libraries might be able to do useful work, by providing and keeping up to date the orders issued under important statutes.

The book is admirably arranged and presented. The analysis of the statutes is full and clear, and the illustrations from cases are numerous and apposite. The Tables at the beginning, with page references of Statutes and Cases, will give much assistance to readers; there is an excellent index; and the inclusion, at the end of each part, of blank pages for memoranda will also be helpful.

First Aid and Home Nursing Remembrances

By J. M. CARVELL. (6d. John Bale & Staples.)

First Aid to Injured and Sick

By Dr. H. SUTHERLAND. (6d. Livingstone.)

For many years past the 'Carvell' folders have proved of great value to first aid and ambulance workers. This little book by Dr. Carvell comprising first aid and home nursing with many useful diagrams and instructions on bandaging should be in the hands of every person interested in these subjects.

Dr. Halliday Sutherland's *First Aid to Injured and Sick* is equally useful and much valuable material has been compressed into the forty-third edition. Since the organization of A.R.P. and other branches of civil defence, many thousands of people have become efficient 'first-aiders' and will welcome the information contained in these booklets, both of which are well indexed.

Kitchen Management: in Schools, Colleges, Hotels, &c.

By E. M. BENSON. (5s. net. Dent.)

This is a very practical manual on the subject. Part I deals with the premises, equipment and cleaning. The planning of suitable premises is emphasized and a method suggested for testing the plan. Several diagrams are given of kitchens catering for 100–400 persons and in one the work circuits are shown for washing up, vegetables, meats and sweets. A chapter is allotted to cafeterias and to Institutional accounts. Part II deals with catering for varying types of institutions at different sums per head per week, and illustrative menus are given with costings. The subject is very well handled and the book can be recommended.

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Modern Languages

Harrap's Shorter French and English Dictionary

Edited by J. E. MANSION. Part 1 : French-English. (8s. 6d. net. Harrap.)

This is the first volume, French into English, of a condensed version of *Harrap's Standard French and English Dictionary*. It includes most modern terms in science, art, and technology, and deals effectively with points of grammar, idiom, and pronunciation. A handy and workmanlike production.

French for English Idioms and Figurative Phrases, with many Quotations from French Authors

By J. O. KETTRIDGE. (6s. net. Routledge.)

This is a companion volume to the author's *French Idioms and Figurative Phrases*. That volume contained the English equivalents of French phrases, with illustrative quotations from English authors. This volume contains the French equivalents of English phrases, with illustrative quotations from French authors. The book maintains the very high standard set by its predecessor and should prove invaluable to students of French. It is admirably printed and produced, and is remarkably good value for its price.

Say it the French Way: Vocabularies, Dialogues, Oral Practice, with English Equivalents.

By Mlle. M. L. DELBENDE. (2s. 6d. Hachette.)

This book has been written for members of conversation classes and an English translation of the dialogues has been given throughout. Before composing her book the authoress has tried them with her own pupils. It endeavours to be more than a phrase book and to convey a little of the spirit of France.

Everyday French

By N. S. WILSON. (The Teach Yourself Books.) (2s. 6d. net. English Universities Press.)

Mr. Scarlyn Wilson is as vigorous an author as he is a teacher and all his publications merit careful reading. The spirit of any language is most fully revealed in idioms and turns of phrase. This is not a book for beginners. A sequel to *Teach Yourself French*, the pupil has to take his work seriously. In one lesson he is given a list of words and phrases to learn, a piece of *version* to translate into English, and a piece of English to translate into French. He must revise continually all his back work. A note-book should be kept of all new words which should be entered up in two columns—English and French. Usually teachers do far too much for their pupils ; this is a cruel kindness, the pupil should be made to work for himself.

A Book of French Verse: for Australian Schools

Edited, with a Vocabulary and Notes, by Dr. A. C. TAYLOR. (3s. 6d. net. Melbourne University Press in association with the Oxford University Press.)

Mr. Taylor's collection of French Poetry for Australian schools might be also used in this country. It would serve as an introduction to that popular collection, *French Poems of To-day*. It is divided into four sections in order of difficulty, and it has notes and a full vocabulary.

1. Charme de Province

Contes recueillis par Dr. MINA J. MOORE. (Harrap's Modern Language Series.) (2s. 3d. Harrap.)

2. Ferragus

By H. DE BALZAC. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by W. S. HASTINGS and J. WENGER. (2s. 6d. Heath.)

These two additions to Harrap's Modern Language Series would suit a post-certificate form. Miss Mina Moore's book deals with the French provinces while Balzac's *Ferragus*, edited by Messrs. Hastings and Wenger deals with Paris. It is dedicated to Berlioz and the first illustration depicts a street at the south side of the Pont St. Michel. The story is exciting.

Science

Light and Colour in the Open Air

By Prof. M. MINNAERT. Translation made by H. M. KREMER-PRIEST and revised by K. E. BRIAN JAY. (15s. net. Bell.)

"*Le professeur idéal est l'homme que le monde amuse et qui s'amuse à faire partager son plaisir*" says H. Bouasse in one of his prefaces. Bouasse would certainly look upon Prof. Minnaert as an ideal science teacher. For he has written one of the most original and delightful books that have appeared for many years. He intends it for all those who love Nature, whether they have studied science or not. It is certain that those who read it will find their lives permanently enriched, for they will learn to see with fresh eyes.

In a word, Prof. Minnaert is trying to start a new kind of nature study—not of plants and of animals, but of what can be *seen* in nature. He has collected hundreds of phenomena, both common and rare ; he tells us how best to observe them ; and he gives simple and convincing explanations. He has left out most things that require the use of instruments and has concentrated almost entirely on what can be seen with the eyes alone.

A casual glance at the list of contents might make one think this was just a book on Light. All the usual titles are there—reflection, polarization, intensity, &c.—but how barren and abstract text-books seem in comparison ! Why do the borders of roofs outlined against the night sky seem brighter than the background ? When can one see horizontal rainbows ? Are rainbows affected by lightning ? Can you use a pair of spectacles to explain the twinkling of the stars ? Why do innumerable light and dark rays diverge from the head when one's shadow falls on the ruffled surface of a pool ? Why does a halo surround the head when one's shadow falls on dew-covered grass ? It is questions like these that Prof. Minnaert considers ; it is the how and the why of mirages, rainbows, haloes, coronae, coloured shadows, green flashes, harvest moons, the colours of sky, cloud, sea, and lake that attract his attention.

And, after reading what he has to say, one is tempted at once to go out and observe, and to make the very simple apparatus he suggests. His description of sunsets, for instance, has led the reviewer to go out, evening after evening, to watch with fresh eyes what he thought he had so often seen. He cannot understand now how he can have been so blind for so long !

What a book ! Certainly no teacher of science—especially of general science—can afford to leave it unread. And through it many laymen might well learn to love science.

Mellor's Modern Inorganic Chemistry

Revised and Edited by Dr. G. D. PARKES, in collaboration with Dr. J. W. MELLOR. (12s. 6d. Longmans.)

'Mellor' is so well known, and its qualities so widely appreciated, that it would usually be unnecessary to mention a new edition. But this revision is of so fundamental a kind as to make almost a new book. There are now 16 chapters —250 pages—on general theory, seven are devoted to the chief non-metals, and the remaining elements are then discussed according to the order of the periodic groups. The salts are now given under the heading of the metals concerned—instead of under the acids. Many diagrams and a number of half-tone illustrations have been included. The text has been brought thoroughly up to date and the description of industrial processes has, in many cases, been extended and modernized. The reviewer well remembers the excitement with which, as a schoolboy, he first read Mellor and the way in which it fed his enthusiasm for chemistry. The new version has all the merits of the old : may it continue to give profit and enjoyment to a new generation of students.

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SCHOLARSHIPS

MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES,

FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

WESTFIELD COLLEGE
(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

Chairman of Council:
Rt. Hon. Viscount CALDECOTE, C.B.E.

Principal:
Mrs. J. L. STOCKS, B.Sc. (Econ.)

RESIDENTIAL College for 150 women which prepares for the Degrees of the University of London. Non-resident Students are also admitted. At the Scholarship Examination to be held in February, 1941, SCHOLARSHIPS from £100 to £30 will be awarded for CLASSICS, GERMAN, FRENCH, ENGLISH, HISTORY, BOTANY and MATHEMATICS.

Fees.—Residence, £90 a year. Tuition from 38 guineas a year.

For further particulars apply to:

The Registrar,
WESTFIELD COLLEGE,
(University of London)

at ST. PETER'S HALL, OXFORD

ALDENHAM SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys under 14 on May 1, on the results of an examination toward the end of May:

(*a*) An ALFRED SMITH SCHOLARSHIP of £80 a year.

(*b*) Three JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS, of £60 to £40 a year.

(*c*) Two or more EXHIBITIONS of about £30 a year.

INTERNAL SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys already in the School:

(*a*) Two SENIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 a year, open to boys not less than 15 and not more than 17 on May 1.

(*b*) Two JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 to £30 a year, open to all boys in the School.

LEAVING EXHIBITIONS. About three each year, from £80 downward, tenable for three years or more at the Universities.

The School Scholarships are tenable for the duration of the holder's school career.

The School Fees are £115 a year, with a Consolidated Fee of £5 a term to cover all necessary extras.

Further particulars may be had from the HEADMASTER, ALDENHAM SCHOOL, ELSTREE, HERTS.

ABBOTSHOLME SCHOOL,
DERBYSHIRE

Well removed from military objectives and industrial targets.

SCHOLARSHIP TESTS. Junior and Senior School. 19th, 22nd May, 1941. Age limits under 14 and over 8 on September 30, 1941. Five Scholarships offered of values up to 100 Guineas —£75, £60, £30, £30.

BEAUMONT COLLEGE

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS are awarded in March and June. Candidates must have taken previously the March or June Common Entrance Examination. A further Examination will be held at the College on March 28 and June 27. For further particulars apply the RECTOR, Beaumont College, Old Windsor, Berks.

BERKHAMSTED SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination will be held in June, 1941, for three Entrance Scholarships of the value of £60, and four or more Exhibitions of less amount.

Candidates must be under the age of 14 on June 1 immediately before the examination. The age of candidates will be taken into consideration in the examination.

Entries should be received by May 24. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

BRIGHTON COLLEGE

AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

A number of Gill Memorial Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered each June to sons of Officers or Ex-Officers in H.M. Army. The highest of these awards will amount to half the total fees.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

BRYANSTON SCHOOL,
BLANDFORD

AN Examination will be held at the end of May, 1941, for the award of SEVEN SCHOLARSHIPS (£80–£30), including a MUSIC SCHOLARSHIP (£40); and SOME COMPETITIVE BURSARIES value £50 will be offered to boys of all round ability. For particulars apply to the Headmaster.

CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in each July, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

CHARTERHOUSE SCHOLARSHIPS, 1941

AN Examination will be held on June 3, 4, and 5 at Charterhouse, Godalming, and at Charterhouse, London, E.C. (circumstances permitting). The Scholarships, of which not less than ten will be awarded if duly qualified candidates present themselves, are of the value of £91 10s. per annum, and are open to boys between 12 and 14 on July 15 next after the examination. Application for details and form of entry should reach the SECRETARY, Charterhouse, Godalming, before May 26.

CHARD SCHOOL,
SOMERSET

OFFERS for competition in June a number of Open Scholarships in addition to one open only to boys born in the County of Somerset. Particulars from the HEADMASTER.

CRANBROOK SCHOOL, KENT
Founded 1520

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

THE Scholarship Examination will be held on May 22 and 23, 1941; Entries up to May 12. Age limit 14½ on June 30. Six Scholarships, of £75, £50 (3) and £40 (2), together with two Exhibitions and two Bursaries, are offered annually. Total fees, with consolidated charge for extras, £103 10s. a year.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

CULFORD SCHOOL,
BURY ST. EDMUNDS

AN Examination for Scholarships will be held in May, 1941. Five Scholarships will be offered (value £70–£30). Particulars and Entry Form from the HEADMASTER.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

THE DOWNS SCHOOL, SEAFORD,
ST. IVES, CORNWALL

SIX Entrance Scholarships, a Music and an Art Scholarship value £30–£100 per annum will be awarded on the result of an examination to be held in May, 1941. Particulars from the HEADMISTRESS.

ETON COLLEGE

THE Examination for King's Scholarships will be held at the College on May 27, 28, and 29. Forms for entering Candidates, and all particulars, may be obtained from the CLERK to the Provost and Fellows, The Bursary, Eton College, Windsor.

EVERSLEY
From Elmer's Court, near Lymington, Hants.

Temporarily at:
THE PENHALLOW HOTEL, NEWQUAY, CORNWALL.

ONE Music Scholarship of £30 per annum is open for competition. The successful candidate can receive a vacancy in the summer term, beginning May 2. Particulars may be obtained from the HEADMISTRESS, and all applications should be received by March 15.

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SCHOLARSHIPS MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES,

FELLOWSHIPS. EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

FELIXSTOWE COLLEGE FOR GIRLS

At RIDDLESWORTH HALL, DISS, NORFOLK

SCHOLARSHIP Examination will be held early in May, 1941. Six Scholarships, £60–£30 and several Exhibitions. Also one Music Scholarship awarded to a candidate of sufficient merit—preferably offering strings. Entries by April 12. Age under 15 on June 1, 1941. For particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS.

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

KING'S COLLEGE OF HOUSEHOLD AND SOCIAL SCIENCE

(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

Temporary Address:

c/o UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LEICESTER

THE following Scholarships for students wishing to read for the Degree of B.Sc. in Household and Social Science will be awarded on the results of a competitive examination to be held in May, 1941:

(a) One Scholarship of £80 per annum for three years,

(b) One Scholarship of £40 per annum for three years,

(c) Two Scholarships of £20 per annum for three years.

Full particulars can be obtained on application to the Secretary.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY

Carlyon Bay, South Cornwall

THREE Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

TWELVE to Fourteen King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

TWO Milner Memorial Scholarships value £100 per annum for five years, will be offered in June. The Milner Scholarship is open to sons of Colonial Civil Servants and others.

For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

KING WILLIAM'S COLLEGE

ISLE OF MAN

SCHOLARSHIP Examination in May. Closing day for entries, May 1. The examination may take place at candidate's School. Ten Scholarships will be offered in 1941, in value from £100 to £50 a year. Also several minor scholarships not exceeding £40 a year available. For particulars apply to the PRINCIPAL, King William's College, Isle of Man.

LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

(a) Six SCHOLARSHIPS (at least), Classical and Modern, varying from £100 to £50 per annum, according to merit and needs.

(b) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

LIVERPOOL COLLEGE FOR GIRLS

Huyton, near Liverpool

WITH A JUNIOR BRANCH AT BLACKWELL, NEAR BOWNESS, AND A SENIOR BRANCH AT RYDAL HALL, NEAR AMBLESIDE.

AN Entrance Scholarship Examination (Scholarships £50, Exhibitions £30) will take place in May, 1941. Preference given to candidates under 14 years of age. Applications to the HEADMISTRESS before May 1st. Particulars of other bursaries sent on application. Three closed Scholarships to the University, one available each year.

THE LEYS SCHOOL, CAMBRIDGE

Temporarily removed to

THE ATHOLL PALACE HOTEL, PITLOCHRY, PERTHSHIRE

THREE or four Open Foundation Scholarships of £100 a year, and six other Scholarships and Exhibitions of between £25 and £75 a year will be awarded in June, 1941, if suitable candidates of sufficient merit present themselves. Candidates must be under 14 on January 1, 1941. A large choice of subjects in the Final Examination is available, including Science, German, and Music. Scholarships and Exhibitions may in certain cases be increased by such an amount as the circumstances of the Scholar may require. Full particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER.

The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

MALVERN COLLEGE

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held early in March, 1942. Up to five Scholarships of £100 and three or more of £50. A number of Exhibitions and Bursarships also will be offered to boys of all-round ability.

Candidates may take the Examination at their Preparatory Schools or at Malvern.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEADMASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in September.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS, M.A. (Cantab.).

OUNDLE SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June. For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

RADLEY COLLEGE

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions varying in value from £120–£40 will be offered for competition in March, 1941. Candidates must be under 14 on March 1, 1941. The Examination will be held in two parts: (a) Elementary Papers at the Candidate's Preparatory School on March 10; (b) more Advanced Papers for selected candidates at Radley on March 14 and 15. Last day on which entries can be received March 3. Apply for particulars to THE WARDEN, Radley College, Abingdon, Berks.

ROEDEAN SCHOOL, KESWICK

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions will be awarded on the result of an examination to be held in May, 1941, for girls under 14. The value of each award will vary from £30 to £150 a year, according to the financial circumstances of the candidate.

Particulars and forms of application from the Headmistress's Secretary. Last date of entry, March 31st.

ROYAL HOLLOWAY COLLEGE

(University of London)

POST-GRADUATE STUDENTSHIPS, 1941-2

STUDENTSHIPS ranging in value from £60 to £100 are offered for the Session 1941–42 to women who are graduates (in Arts or Science), or have taken the final degree examination of any University. The award will be made at the end of the Easter Term 1941. Particulars may be obtained from the Principal, Royal Holloway College, Englefield Green, Surrey.

STOWE

TEN Scholarships and four Bursaries are offered every summer to boys under 14 on May 1. Examination, 1941: June 4–6. Particulars from the HEADMASTER, Stowe School, Buckingham.

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SCHOLARSHIPS

MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES, FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

SHREWSBURY SCHOOL

THE Scholarship Examination, 1941, will be held at Shrewsbury on May 27th, 28th and 29th. It is possible, if circumstances later suggest, that a preliminary Examination will be given in the previous week at Candidates' own Schools, only selected Boys being then summoned to Shrewsbury for a shorter final Examination.

Eleven Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered, including two of £100 two of £80; one of £60, an Arthur Bailey Scholarship of £60 (for the son of an Officer in the O.B.L.I., or, in default, of a Regular Officer), the T.E. Pickering Scholarship of £35; two to four Exhibitions of £40 or £30 (according to merit); an Exhibition for Music of £30. In special cases financial assistance somewhat above the titular value may be given. Candidates to be under 14 on April 1st, 1941. Full information on application to the BURSAR.

TONBRIDGE SCHOOL

SCHOLARSHIPS Examination on May 27 to 30, 1941. Entries close May 10. The following will be offered: for boys under 14 on June 1, 1941, two New Judd Scholarships of £100 per annum each, two New Judd Scholarships of £80 per annum each and five or six Foundation Scholarships entitling the holder to exemption from payment of the Tuition Fee, £20 to £30 per annum. For boys under 15 on June 1, 1941, the Judd Scholarship of £40 per annum, and the Low Scholarship of £50 per annum, open to the sons of persons who are or have been in any of the various services under the British Government in India. The total fees for a Boarder to the School are about £142 per annum.

For particulars apply to the SECRETARY to the Headmaster, The School House, Tonbridge.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF THE SOUTH-WEST, EXETER

Preparation for London Degrees.
Residential: 2 Men's and 4 Women's Halls.
140 acres campus. All games.

TEN Open Entrance Scholarships Two of £100 and eight of £80 yearly with many other Scholarships and Exhibitions. Next examination commences March 3, 1941. Syllabus and entry form obtainable from Registrar.

DEPARTMENT FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS. A few vacancies for October.

UPPINGHAM SCHOOL

AN Examination will be held in May next for Scholarships varying from £100 to £30, tenable under conditions, during a boy's School career.

WORCESTER ROYAL GRAMMAR SCHOOL

ELD SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination for Eld Scholarships, value up to £80 per annum, will be held on June 10, 11 and 12. Open to Boys under 14 on May 1 next.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

WORKSOP COLLEGE, NOTTS.

AN Examination is held in May or June. Generally two Scholarships are offered of £60 each, two of £40, and two of £30. Candidates must be under 14 years of age. Full particulars and entry forms can be obtained from the HEADMASTER, Worksop College, Notts.

WREKIN COLLEGE, WELLINGTON, SHROPSHIRE

SCHOLARSHIPS AND EXHIBITIONS

AN Examination is held annually, usually in June, when six Entrance Scholarships are offered for competition, value from 40 to 100 guineas, also six Exhibitions, value 30 guineas. Leaving Exhibitions ranging in value from £65 to £30 per annum, tenable at any University or other place of higher education approved by the Governors are awarded at the end of the Summer Term.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, WALTER M. GORDON, M.A., Wrekin College.

WYCLIFFE COLLEGE

War-Time Address: Lampeter, Cardiganshire

ENTRANCE Scholarships and Bursaries in June, 1941. Details from the HEADMASTER, W. A. SIBLY, M.A. (Oxon).

WYCOMBE ABBEY SCHOOL, BUCKS

SIX Scholarships will be offered by the Council on the result of an examination to be held in May, 1941, to girls under 14 on May 1. The amount of the Scholarship is decided after consideration of the circumstances of the candidates, the maximum value being £150 a year. A number of Bursaries will also be given to girls who do not reach Scholarship standard. All entry forms must be received before March 31. For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS.

THE INCORPORATED

FROEBEL EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE

COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS
GROVE HOUSE, ROEHAMPTON LANE, S.W. 1

DEMONSTRATION SCHOOL
COLET GARDENS, W. KENSINGTON, W.

CHAIRMAN: L. G. MONTEFIORE, O.B.E., M.A.
PRINCIPAL: Miss E. M. JEBB, M.A.

Students are trained for the Examinations of the National Froebel Foundation.

Prospectuses and particulars as to Scholarships, Bursaries, and Grants from the Board of Education may be obtained from the SECRETARY.

The College has been evacuated to Knebworth House, Knebworth, Herts., and the Demonstration School has been opened as a boarding school at Little Gaddesden, near Berkhamsted, Herts.

HALLS of RESIDENCE

HOSTELS, RESIDENTIAL AND HOLIDAY QUARTERS FOR TEACHERS

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF NORTH WALES, BANGOR

University Hostels for Women Students

Warden: Miss M. ORLIDGE DAVIS (Hons. Hist. Oxon.)

Fees, £51, £56, and £61 per annum

The courses are arranged with reference to the Degrees of the University of Wales. There is a Department for the Training of Secondary and Elementary Teachers, and Departments of Music, Theology and Agriculture, the classes in which are open to women students. Prospectuses may be obtained from the REGISTRAR, University College, Bangor.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF SWANSEA

(A Constituent College of the University of Wales)

Beck Hall of Residence for Women Students

Warden: Miss M. K. WILKINSON, M.A.

Fee, 57 guineas per session of 31 weeks.

College tuition fees, Arts, £20, and Science £25 per session.

Prospectuses of the College may be obtained from the REGISTRAR, University College, Singleton Park, Swansea.

OXFORD

OXENFORD HALL. — Old-established Private Hotel, near the Martyrs' Memorial and central for Colleges. Moderate residential, daily, or bed and breakfast terms. Hot and cold water in bedrooms. Telephone 2748.

COACHING

WOLSEY HALL, OXFORD (founded in 1894), prepares candidates by correspondence for all exams. leading to London University Degrees; Teaching Diplomas of Oxford, Cambridge, London, and other Universities; A.C.P. L.C.P.; Non-examination Courses on the History and Practice of Education and other subjects. Students are also prepared for Matriculation, Leaving Exams., Locals, Professional Prelims., &c. Tutorial Staff comprises 56 Graduate Teachers. Prospectus free from C. D. PARKER, M.A., LL.D., Director of Studies, Dept. E., WOLSEY HALL, OXFORD.

TYPEWRITING

TYPEWRITING. Testimonials, Reports, Exam. Papers, &c., 1d. each, 25 (similar) 1s. 3d.; 50, 2s. MSS. Syllabuses, 10d. 1,000 words. Carbons 2d. Honours Certificate.—HURLOCK, 8 Berlin Road, Hastings.

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A POLICY IN RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

THE President of the Board, when opening a large new senior school at Salford recently, very rightly took occasion to point the contrast between the devastation which enemy action has brought to that area, and the resolution to carry on which the new building symbolizes. The conjunction is well worth emphasis. It will not be taken to mean that there is in Salford or anywhere else a blind and pathetic faith in some impossible 'return to normal'. But it may well be accepted as meaning that, where in our social and educational experimentation we have hit upon a fruitful idea, we shall go on developing its possibilities whatever the conditions may be. There can be no doubt now that in the senior school we have such an idea. The President went so far as to say that our newer ones are "among the best in the world"; and that "the education given, at any rate in the most efficient of them, cannot be surpassed anywhere else". This may be true enough, but it is dangerous to emphasize it. We shall be much more profitably engaged not in encouraging complacency by flattering comparisons but in continuing to improve the schools and in realizing their possibilities as *a plastic form of secondary education*. There is still all too little indication of the general acceptance in practice of the richer and more relevant meaning that the Spens Report would give to the term 'secondary', and we welcome the President's announcement at Morecambe that he wants to see our secondary or post-primary schools so remodelled and so extended that in due course all boys and girls up to the age of 16 can be furnished with an education suitable to their various tastes and capacities.

Senior and Secondary.

POINT is given to the plea for large-scale and generously-inspired experiment in working out the richer and more plastic concept of secondary education by an article appearing in the February issue of *The Parents' Review*. It is entitled "Prestige rather than Purpose", and is reprinted from *The Times Educational Supplement*. It condemns the English secondary school as the "weakest and most perverted feature" of the English system. It details the causes of this unhappy miscarriage and continues: "It is pitiful to think of the hundreds of thousands of boys and girls, a large proportion of whom won by intellectual and moral merit the right to a place in the secondary school, who have been denied even the semblance of an education meet for their needs, and who have passed out into the world of adult life stunted in mind and blunted in character because of the drearily academic hammering they received during their adolescent years." This, we feel, is much too sweeping, not very helpful, and less than just to those who have already recognized the error and are making valuable contributions to its correction. Instead of wasting time and effort on such easy rhetorical exercises is it not much more to the point to recognize that the misdirection of the secondary school has now been accepted and its causes fully set out by the Spens Report? Then we can set ourselves to the practical realization of that far-reaching readjustment for which the Report provides plan and inspiration. Denunciation is barren enough.

The New 'Secondary'.

HERE are two more of the unfruitful sisterhood. Complacency induces you to contemplate your achievements while ignoring your shortcomings. 'Projection' does the same kind of dubious service in the converse way. It enables you to escape from your own conscience and to acquire an easy virtue by the denunciation of the other fellow's sins. You externalize the devil as it were and so can slam at him without the uncomfortable feeling that you yourself may be implicated. Recent utterances of the President of the Board give rise to the fear that, all unwittingly, he may do unintended harm by yielding too much to these tendencies. In a recent overseas broadcast on "The Schools in War-time" he did well to pay tribute to the courage and resource with which authorities, teachers, and pupils are meeting the cruel tests of total war. There is much evidence that our friends overseas have an exaggerated

Complacency and 'Projection'.

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idea of the dislocation of services and of normal social and administrative activities that the war has occasioned. It is natural enough that this should be so, but this only makes authoritative correction all the more necessary. This service the President has done, but one could have wished it had been done with fuller recognition not only of the shortcomings but also of the dangers and doubts that are still abroad. Again, a considerable part of the speech at Salford was taken up with denunciation of the Nazis. A more difficult but more profitable task is to give to his own people the lead and the inspiration of which we know him to be capable. For both we and our world stand now at a crisis of history for which there is no real precedent. We have to think new thoughts, to find new resources in ourselves, and to give a new direction to old resources. In short, nothing can save us and the things for which we stand short of a long process of self-examination as rigorous as it must be painful. Self-satisfied contemplation of our achievements so far is no more a substitute for that than is virtuous denunciation of the sins of our enemies.

A Plan for Education.

MR. J. COMPTON, the new President of the Association of Directors and Secretaries for Education, made a number of important points in the communication to members which took the place of the traditional presidential address. After expressing gratitude and satisfaction to the President of the Board of Education for his Oxford speech, he went on to comment on the statement that the President and his officers are at present giving deep and careful thought to the preparation of plans for far-reaching reforms. " To any one outside the Board ", he added, " the statement must seem too trite. It would be ungracious not to assume that the President is limiting his consultations to those with his officers only in the preliminaries of scheme-making. The local authorities, the teachers, education officers, and the major educational organizations have a right to be consulted which will not be in dispute. But at what stage will the approach to them be made ? They should be consulted now when fundamentals have to be established, and before a policy has been formulated. A consultative committee or commission seems to be inevitable. . . . When a committee is set up it should issue interim reports, on which governmental action should be taken, at least twice a year." We wish to lay stress on this important point. Teachers and other educationists should be taken fully into the Board's confidence immediately so that all the points mentioned by Mr. Compton —re-examination of the curriculum, equality of status as between all forms of post-primary education, review of the Grant System, and so on, may receive careful and detailed consideration from all points of view.

The W.E.A. Deputation.

AN important deputation organized by the Workers' Educational Association and representing also the T.U.C. and the Co-operative Union, recently saw Mr. Ramsbotham and Sir Maurice Holmes at the Board of Education. Prof. R. H. Tawney, President of the W.E.A., said there were two main issues, the present educational position and the future policy of the Board. As regards the first he recognized the improvement that had taken place and was grateful for the Board's efforts, but the war might last two or three years, and the whole future of the children depended on what was done now. There was a discrepancy between the number of children enrolled and those actually in attendance. Some nursery schools had been closed, and there was a tendency to release children from school before the end of the term when they became 14. The fall in the number of secondary school pupils was very disturbing. What was the Board doing to check the tendency of parents to break contracts ? Turning to future policy, Prof. Tawney said that, if we were to have a general system of post-primary education, the W.E.A. wished to see it organized on a basis of complete equality of status for all children and schools at that stage. Thus, fees must be abolished, and, if that could not be done at once, admission should be put on the basis of 100 per cent special places. Preparations for the raising of the school-leaving age should be made in advance. Reorganization was far from complete, necessary building had been held up, and preparations for raising the age to 16 were needful. Other speakers supported the multilateral school as a means of abolishing class differences and spoke of the illegal employment of children now prevalent. Mr. Ramsbotham replied sympathetically, but intimated that the Treasury would need persuasion if the desired reforms were to be carried out. It will be part of the business of *The Journal* to see that this persuasion is exercised.

Religion in the Schools.

WE have followed with much interest the correspondence arising out of the Archbishops' appeal in *The Times* of February 13, and the leading article on the same day. The appeal, which has the support of the Free Churches, is sure to command widespread sympathy. In all discussions of the subject there arises ever and anon the question—what do you mean by Christian education ? Do you mean the Christian ethic, or Christian doctrine, or both ? Sir Cyril Norwood, in his recent article contributed to *The Fortnightly Review*, places the emphasis on the ethical teaching of the gospels, and we think that most school teachers will agree with him. So far we of the education service can march together, and that is the reason why ' the religious difficulty ' is so little felt in the schools. As to doctrine, there can never be similar agreement, even within the limits of the same communion. Yet no serious difficulty arises in the elementary schools, partly because doctrine is too hard a nut for children to crack, and partly because the teacher's sanity of judgment may as a rule be trusted. That our leading newspapers should give prominence to the subject of religious education is all to the good, but it should be made clear that what we are fighting for is not any system of Christian doctrine, but a way of life, of which the historical expression for us is to be found in the New Testament. The letter in *The Times* from the Bishop of Oxford was rightly characterized by the

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Rev. C. H. S. Matthews as "deplorable". As Mr. V. J. K. Brook said in reply to the Bishop: "The natural point from which to start Christian education is Christ in the Gospels, not the Bishop on his throne."

A Staffing Pool.

THERE has been a request in some quarters for a 'staffing pool' to be established for the primary school. This, it is claimed, would enable local education authorities whose staffs have been drastically reduced to borrow teachers from other more fortunate local education authorities who by reason of temporary war conditions have teachers to spare. The Board of Education do not, however, agree that there is need for such an arrangement at present: they have indicated to the Association of Education Committees that local education authorities have by constant co-operation with the Board's Inspectorate been able to overcome any marked difficulties, for the present at any rate. The time will come, however, in our opinion, when some kind of staffing pool will have to be officially established. Small local education authorities cannot cope with disorganization and staffing anomalies so easily as can the larger authorities. One remedy would be to give power to the Board and local education authorities to 'second' a teacher for the duration of the war to any equivalent post with his consent, which consent would be more readily given if he knew that he would not sustain any loss in status or in remuneration.

Fire Watching.

THE Joint Committee of the Four Secondary Associations, according to a statement published in *The Times Educational Supplement*, received at its last meeting reports of different schemes for fire watching being tried out in secondary schools. Among the matters considered were the difficulties that had arisen in schools where a voluntary scheme had been set up. Such schemes, it was strongly felt, should not impose hardships over and above those which would apply if the scheme were compulsory under Government order. Some schemes had been organized without previous consultation with members of the staff, and teachers were being asked to volunteer for periods of duty outside working hours far in excess of the aggregate of 48 hours in each month which is enforceable under the Fire Prevention Order. The view was expressed that in all schools the final responsibility for the provision of fire watching should lie with the local authority, and that, where the number of the staff was too small to provide an adequate guard under reasonable conditions of duty, it should be the responsibility of the local A.R.P. authority to supply the deficiency. Much doubt was expressed about the employment for fire-watching duties of boys of 16 or 17. Many were volunteering for duties in their homes or billets, but there would be less danger of overstrain if these pupils were to join in a school scheme under supervision. At the same time some teachers were reluctant to incur the added responsibility of the presence of pupils in duties which must involve some risk to life. The question of compensation for injury had also given rise to concern. It is evident that the watchfulness of the Joint Four in these matters is well justified.

Universities in War-time.

THE *Times Educational Supplement* has done a useful service in collecting from our universities reports on their work and conditions during war-time. In general, the record is cheerful, notwithstanding frequent physical damage. Birmingham University foresees a shortage of technically trained students, and makes the bold suggestion that "the time for conscription into the universities would appear to have arrived", the suggestion being inspired by future national needs rather than by the needs of the universities. Reforms recently introduced at Birmingham include the introduction of family allowances for members of the staff with salaries not exceeding £700; and compulsory physical training for first-year students, service in the Officers Training Corps being accepted as an alternative. London, with many colleges evacuated and eighty-six professors or readers absent on war service, has suffered severely, and the reduction in examination fees has caused financial difficulty. Official encouragement has come from the maintenance without reduction of the Treasury grant of £2,400,000 to universities, seasoned with an encomium from the Chancellor of the Exchequer of the universities' "contribution to the national effort". In the Four Years' War the universities provided very many of our best officers. In this war, in addition to this contribution, they are again giving much help in the development of our scientific and industrial effort, which is so vitally important to us in modern warfare.

Oxford and Politics.

OXFORD University has the proud distinction of sending successive War Ambassadors to the United States. Lord Halifax, Chancellor of the University, who succeeds Lord Lothian, sowed his political oats as President of the Board of Education and, after a term as Viceroy of India, served as Foreign Secretary during a period of intense strain. His predecessor at Washington, representing a somewhat similar type of Oxford culture, will be remembered for his work as Secretary of the Rhodes Trust and during the Peace Conference following the war of 1914–18. Trained in history under H. A. L. Fisher, Lord Lothian maintained —and demonstrated—that the science of government is the noblest subject of human study. Too often the sound knowledge and good intentions of its students have not paved the way to peace on earth. Men of the type of Lord Halifax and Lord Lothian are not dismayed by frustration and failure. May Oxford provide a due succession!

CRITICISM of the Civil Service in war-time is inevitable. But Lord Perry's attack in the House of Lords was intemperate—"he knew of nothing worth while and worthy they had done since the war began" —and drew from the Lord Chancellor (Lord Simon) a stern rebuke, and warm praise of "the silent men who

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were striving with all their might to contribute what they could to the war effort ". Nevertheless, as Lord Cecil said, the time has come for improving administrative machinery. This view was endorsed by Lord Addison, who said that the traditions and habits of the permanent Civil Service were not adapted to the rapid decisions required in war-time. In selecting our higher civil servants, have we not stressed too exclusively the need for high educational standards? In addition to written examinations demanding concentration and good memory, evidence of constructive ability should be demanded in the investigation of specific problems. This would bring the candidates into contact with the world of affairs.

The Civil Service.

SOMEWHAT tardily the Admiralty has called for naval cadets from grant-aided secondary schools, offering ten scholarships for each Dartmouth term, together with ten unrestricted as to schools. These scholarships will provide outfit and free education. The question has been raised in Parliament by Commander Marsden whether, having received free training, the midshipman will be able to live on his pay. This question is to be examined and its solution should not offer insuperable difficulty. Much the same question has arisen in regard to Army officers. The principle of providing free training for public service, accepted by the Navy and the Army, is sound and capable of extension, especially in respect of the Civil Service and such professions as secondary teaching, medicine, and scientific research. By spreading the emoluments, direct and indirect, over a longer period, a wider field of choice and higher standard of attainment are practicable and the sense of frustration is avoided from which many have suffered in the past.

Naval Scholarships.

THOSE responsible for the education and training of Army officers, and politicians who criticise their work, should read the lectures of General Sir Archibald Wavell delivered at Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1939, and republished by *The Times*. After discussing the general's physical and moral make-up, Sir Archibald comes to his " mental qualities ". Like Marshal Foch, he places first *le sens du praticable*, what we call common sense, administrative factors rather than strategy and tactics. Modern soldiering is a " very complicated business ". There are new potentialities, largely unexplored. The issue of the present war may turn on their exploitation. General Wavell by his conquest of Libya has demonstrated within a year or two his own thesis. The lectures also demonstrate that the General in preparing himself for his task set an example by wide reading and sustained thought on military problems. Chance, said Pasteur, favours those who are prepared. Luck in war comes to those who are bold. " No general can be lucky unless he is bold." General Wavell is a living example of the qualities that make the successful general.

Art of Generalship.

THE Board of Education have given details of an important investigation into youth welfare which has been started in the works of Messrs. Mather & Platt, of Manchester. Forty-eight boy apprentices of 16 years of age are to be selected and divided into two groups of twenty-four each, each group being arranged to represent a fair cross-section of workers, every step being taken to ensure equality in the grading of the two groups. One group will be given forty-five minutes' physical training on six days a week for three months. The other group will remain at work. The two groups will be compared by three tests applied at the beginning and end of the three months' period, consisting of a very thorough medical examination, intelligence tests, and reports on the amount of production. The scheme appears to be a response to appeals made by Mr. Ramsbotham in recent speeches. At Luton, for example, he suggested that, though the scheme for Day Continuation Classes could not be put into force at present, employers might be willing, and might even find it worth their while, to release their young employees for physical training and recreation. In the same speech he stressed the importance of the service of youth in relation to the difficult art of self-government. An experiment of this kind may well, as *The Times* says, be productive of far-reaching results. The data which it will furnish will, we expect, be of a kind to impress the man who relies on facts and figures in forming his opinions.

An Interesting Experiment

OPENING a new secondary school for girls at Llanelly, Mr. J. Chuter Ede, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, said that, unless our determination to preserve freedom of knowledge, utterance, and argument succeeded, generations would have to grope their way through the darkest ages of history. Britain intended to spare no sacrifice to rescue mankind from this ignominious fate. Except in a condition of liberty, sound learning could not be available. In Europe, except for these islands, the light of independent thinking had been quenched. Great and ancient universities had lost their ablest thinkers in concentration camps or exile. Mr. Ede said that the enthusiasm of Wales for higher education was an impressive witness to the virility of her democracy. The steady extension of opportunities continued in spite of the difficulties caused by the industrial depression of the past decade and the outbreak of war. Pupils in secondary schools must beware of living in a rarefied intellectual atmosphere, remote from the cries and struggles of common humanity. Those who made as well as those who planned should be brought into the secondary school. More practical rooms, more practical studies for every pupil, more pupils whose aptitudes were practical rather than academic, would make the schools more responsive to the best hopes of the nation, and would make them unifying forces in the great tests of character and stamina their pupils would have to endure.

Wales and Secondary Education.

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THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE NATION

PART II.—SOCIAL AND POLITICAL ASPECTS

By Professor F. CLARKE, Director of the University of London Institute of Education

IN the 'summing up' article which, at the Editor's request, I contributed to the March issue, I was aware that I had by no means covered all the ground over which the present discussion has travelled. Important contributions, such as those from Professor Laski, Mr. Aneurin Bevan, Professor Joad and others, had still to receive the consideration which was merited both by their intrinsic weight and by the significance of the large bodies of opinion for which they spoke. These contributors, though interested as much as any in the educational problem, approached it from what may be called the social and political side.

Since this aspect of the matter is at least as momentous as the strictly educational one with which I was concerned in the previous article, and since the two strands are obviously so much confused in the minds of many who make claims and express opinions, a further article seemed to be called for. Accordingly the Editor has asked me to carry on the summing-up process into this region.

I am only too well aware that, in crossing its boundaries, one is entering difficult and dangerous country where the very soil is sensitive. For here one is compelled to raise issues which go to the heart of the English social and cultural tradition, and challenge presuppositions upon which English society has been built for some centuries. Differences in the region of pure theory can be discussed in debating-society fashion and no one need be hurt by agreements to differ. But once we enter the region of substantial conflicting *interests* the real battle is joined, for now there are solid things to fight about. Whether the actual battle that seems to be threatening can be averted depends upon factors that cannot wholly be foreseen: the course of events, the degree of restraint shown by the various parties, the extent to which fundamental agreement on values and guiding principles proves attainable, and perhaps the capacity for a certain heroism among the *beati possidentes*.

My own duty is clearly to be as objective and disinterested as I can. So I may be permitted, perhaps, a word or two about the standpoint from which I approach the task. I have had no direct experience of the English public school either as boy or as master, though I have seen something of its oversea editions in the Dominions. I have had indeed some little experience of educational work in oversea societies, differing both from one another and from England, but deriving their original inspiration from historic sources in this country. After some twenty-four years of such experience one returns to England with a heightened consciousness of the vital and intimate relationship of social with educational forms, and with sharpened vision for the peculiarities of the English social and educational landscape. For comparisons are now possible among different species of the same genus, and such comparisons serve to emphasize the outlines of the distinctive features.

This, however, is not all. One also becomes alive to a very real danger of which 'Home' opinion still seems to be insufficiently aware. The unity not only of this country but of the whole Commonwealth and Empire in the face of the crisis can be explained only on the assumption that there is a real and powerful bond of *community* pervading it throughout, at a level much deeper than that of political machinery, and able to withstand even strongly-conflicting forces of economic interest. In respect, therefore, of the great issues which are at stake in the present struggle we are united at once without needing any preachment or formulated 'programme.'

But whether the unity is yet so complete that it can survive the war and hold together under the strain of reconstruction is much more doubtful. We shall not emerge into the world that we left in September, 1939, and there is no sufficient evidence yet that we shall be agreed about the kind of society we want when the war is over. Cleavages and strains that can be suppressed during the struggle may well emerge in all the greater strength when it is past. They will appear not only in English society at home but also in the relations between England on the one hand and our associates in the Dominions and the United States on the other.

Upon such a possibility in England itself I need not dilate. But those who know anything of the forces that animate society in our kindred countries overseas realize that, as between these societies and our own, there are still marked differences of what we may call *socio-political presuppositions*. Unity with them will be more desperately needed than ever after the war: strains and conflicts in pervading community will be much less tolerable. Moreover it is hardly thinkable that the oversea societies will be ready to approximate to the English type; it will be far more necessary and more natural that we should draw towards them in changes in the form and spirit of our own society.

Even this is not all. A British triumph in the vast struggle will decide much more than the fate of the British Empire. It will be the victory of a way of common life of which we shall be called upon to be both the embodiment and the exponent. Are we ready for that role, sure that we can speak with a single voice though in divers tones?

It is because the destiny of the public school is so intimately bound up with these great issues that discussion of it has an urgent importance reaching far beyond the limits of the strictly educational. No summing-up can be relevant if it shirks the responsibility of facing these wider bearings of our problem.

There can be no doubt that the present situation is fraught with dangerous possibilities. The most dangerous factor of all, perhaps, is the confusion of motives and the infection of educational theory by social 'interest' to which I called attention in an earlier article. I cannot but feel that, whether one agrees with them or not, Professor Laski and Mr. Bevan have done a real service by clearing away some of the fog and forcing into relief the larger social issues that have now to be faced. Unless that salutary process of clarification is carried right through, we shall continue in the dangerous state of half-vision, double-mindedness, and self-deception that can be so fruitful a source of conflict.

Thus, one body of critics, seeing the public school only as a keystone in a structure of social privilege, may be moved to a root-and-branch policy of thorough-going and mechanical 'equality.' Some fine things may then go down in ruin and we shall all alike suffer from the resulting impoverishment.

On the other side there are defenders ready to fight the wrong battle on the wrong ground, afflicted with a double-mindedness that, while resolved to save all that can be saved of privilege, chooses to ignore the play of social interest in the defensive façade of educational theory that it throws up. It is, to say the least, unconvincing to base the argument for the educational superiority of the public school on the successes and achievements of its old boys, so long as it can be contended that such achievements are made possible quite as much by the social advantage attaching to a school label as by the inherent virtues of the education which the schools give. So we are driven to wonder whether the educational argument might not be differently stated if the privileged position could not be counted upon and the schools had to compete with other schools on their educational merits alone. That many

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of them would compete successfully cannot be doubted. But, even if they did not find it necessary to alter their practice very materially, they might have to change considerably the *theoretical* justification they give of it and to state it much more carefully. Much of the conventional defence that is offered to-day has an amateurish sound—something improvised and makeshift as though the real defence lay elsewhere. But an educational case of some sort has to be made out, and the statement of it is too often seriously vitiated by the influence of the social facts.

Here is one of the obstacles that still stand in the way of the genuine and systematic study of education in this country. The leading schools do not take the statement of their own purely *educational* case quite seriously just because they do not need to. Then the universities and the ruling interests tend to take their cue from this lead with the result that, as compared with the United States and the Dominions, there is a marked lag in the development of serious and systematic study of education in this country. The stimulus to such work as is done comes in no sense from the public schools.

As an example of what is meant we may take some of the things that have been said in this discussion about teaching, teachers, and teaching-shops. A clear tendency has emerged to depreciate teaching and to exalt ' community ' and ' character-training '. Thus we hear of ' mere ' instruction, and teaching is spoken of in tones that seem at times almost contemptuous. It was thought once that we could pay no greater honour to a Socrates, a Plato or a St. Augustine than to speak of them as great teachers. But there seem to be teachers now with a disposition to spurn the very name, and to combine in a sort of conspiracy to debase a noble word. One would have thought that the tendency would have been quite the other way : to draw into the ambit of ' teaching ' (where they belong) both the directed activities of community and all the devices of character-training. Assuredly we shall find neither unity nor salvation till we have thus restored the name of Teacher to its proper scope and dignity.

Why then this queer and self-destructive disposition ? Perhaps some subtle poison is at work among us. If so, I think I know its source but I prefer to leave readers to trace it for themselves.

Other instances could be quoted of these ' ideological '* influences upon theory, of the play of undeclared interests upon the statement of educational doctrine. But this one must suffice, with a further reminder of the unhappy effect of all this upon the serious and disinterested study of education in England.

But there are still other critics. Already the premonitory rumblings of a clash of interest between public and secondary schools can be heard. And once more it is a clash of interests rather than of principles. So yet another kink develops in what should be the straight educational argument.

Some clarification might result if this age of ours were more given to historical interpretation as a key to the understanding of institutions. If it were we might have what we do not yet possess—an adequate history of English education. Even when the historical interpretation is essayed its use is too often vitiated by the subtle play of ideological ' interest '.

Might it not, however, be accepted that the present position of the public schools is the result of a not very lengthy episode in English social and economic development, the full history of which has not yet been written ? A point has now been reached, apparently, where they no longer have their old relevancy, and where an attempt to guarantee their survival unmodified may be fruitful of harm. Thus the last century or so has seen great changes in the distribution of wealth, accompanied by great and significant changes in the *form* of wealth (especially in respect of its socially-*functional* character). ' Property ' has a rather different meaning now, and that involves corresponding change in the real import of social and political forms. Witness, for instance, the present composition of the House of Lords.

At the same time there has proceeded, with marked acceleration of late, a significant levelling-up of manners and of access to amenities and possibilities of culture. The fitness of large sections of the population for responsible service has been proved beyond doubt. Moreover the problems of social control in a technological age have become more and more a matter of *techniques*, and it can hardly be alleged that the traditions of the public school encourage it to take full account of such a fact.

We need very badly some authoritative and dispassionate elucidation of the complex history that accounts for all this. But is it not already clear that an institution which has been so closely and successfully bound up with a particular kind of socio-economic order as has the public school must find ways of transforming itself if it is to survive when that order changes so fundamentally as it is visibly changing now ?

Indeed, there is good reason to believe that the condition of great and beneficent advance in English education in the near future will be not so much money as far-reaching changes in social attitude and social habit. I return to the point later and will only remark here that it is the money which would be more easily come by.

Justice demands that one important caveat should be entered here. It would be grossly unjust to regard the present directors of policy in the public schools, especially the headmasters, as the arch-villains of an anti-social plot. They are themselves the product, perhaps the victims of the history. If their teeth are set on edge it is because the fathers have eaten grapes which, at the time, did not seem particularly sour. Many of them are as much alive as the best of us to the workings of the historic process by which the present situation has been brought about. And, when the mists have cleared and the outlines of the future are more sharply defined than they are now, who shall say that they will not be ready for heroic action ? The demand on them is terrific, for they have to act in an unprecedented situation in loyalty not only to the obligations of a great tradition but also to the cause of education itself. And they have to do so amid conflict of motives and exposure to misunderstanding. Criticism will be both unjust and unfruitful if it is directed toward them rather than toward the anomalies and irrelevancies which, as a result of history, have appeared in a situation that, not so long ago, seemed as stable as anything can be in this world.

That situation has yet to reveal all its possibilities, but can anything safely be asserted now ?

It seems clear enough that the essence of the matter is the closing of a division in the nation which, tolerable as it may have been in other conditions, can only prove disastrous in the years that lie ahead. There seems to be general readiness to accept this necessity. But there is not the same evidence of clear understanding of all that is implied in the way of action and sacrifice. Is there any way out that does not involve the ending of a state of things where, irrespective of the quality of the education received, the mere possession of a school-label of a certain kind constitutes a claim to privileged status ? If this is denied Professor Laski points to the answer. Look at the occupants of key positions in English government and society to-day in relation to the public school system, and ask whether the superior educational merits of the schools are alone sufficient to explain what one finds. Why have the schools increased so much in numbers, and why is there such eagerness to place boys in them at almost any cost ?

To the charge that the whole system is undemocratic it is sometimes replied that ' independent ' schools of the

* I use the term not in the loose sense that has now become so common, but in the more precise and significant sense that is indicated in Karl Mannheim's *Ideology and Utopia*.

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same kind exist and flourish in those citadels of democracy, the Dominions. That is true. But what does *not* exist there is any recognized claim to status constituted by a particular school label. Between the ' independent ' schools of the Dominions and the working of Dominion government and society there is nothing parallel to what exists in England. It would be inconceivable that, in Australia for instance, a Geelong boy should make claims similar to those which could be made by an Eton or Winchester boy here with the full expectation that they would be accepted.

We must recognize once for all that a nation divided in the old way is no longer possible. True we shall need a ruling class, perhaps more urgently than ever. But it will be differently constituted, recruited by different criteria, and be much more fluid in its composition and more diversified in the social sources from which it is drawn.

Thus the need for a much more whole-hearted and thorough-going realization of *community* is paramount, issuing in a genuinely *common* education at home and a much closer affinity between ourselves and the Dominions and the United States abroad. From all this certain conclusions appear to follow even though we cannot yet discern at all clearly the pattern of the future :

1. A broadening of the basis of recruitment of the public schools does not touch the issue so long as the central structure of privilege remains. Indeed there are signs that it would rather accentuate and extend the conflict. Such a change will have to come, of course, but only as part of a larger policy which faces squarely the main demands.

2. Although the vital issue is social rather than educational the solution of it will nevertheless probably involve modifications in the educational outlook of the public schools. In the customary statement of the doctrine traces can be found of the social ' ideology ' by which it is influenced. ' Knowledge for its own sake ', ' Mental gymnastic ' (in the sense that what you learn matters less than the discipline you acquire in learning it) ; the prestige value of ' useless ' classics ; the exalting of character-formation above instruction ; these all suggest an outlook upon a well-to-do world of considerable leisure, in which governing responsibilities are to be exercised in conditions where the necessary technical knowledge is provided by subordinates, and where it is not assumed that any fundamental changes will take place in the society which the training has in view.

For how much longer can the public school continue to look out on such a world ? For some time now it has been feeling and responding to the demand for something much more specific and *professional* ; for a training that has in view well-organized and usable knowledge focused upon the demands of a professional function in an increasingly technical order. The demand will grow in emphasis and intensity and the old ' leisure ' that the earlier education presupposed will tend to disappear. If, at the same time, the perquisites of privilege fall away and the schools come to stand or fall on their sheer educational merits there will be further stimulus to a more coherent and thoroughly modernized statement of the purely educational doctrine. An important aspect of this will have to be a justification of the boarding-school principle on its merits. If, as is probable, it has merits of its own apart from its special function in a certain kind of social order, the State may have to take more account of it in the reconsidering of national education generally.

It is in this direction, in a continuing internal reform of the public school in a spirit of generous and thorough readaptation to a changed social order, that there is hope. But the obstacle in the path is one that affects not the public school alone, but the whole educational life of this country. It influences the critics quite as much as the defenders of the public schools, though in other ways and in other fields of action. We return here to the point made earlier that not money but far-reaching changes in social attitudes and social habits constitute the condition of solid advance in English education. To an observer who can still take a detached standpoint and is aware of criteria other than those which operate in this country it would seem that any educational discussion in England, provided it turns upon some substantial issue, tends always to resolve itself into a clash of interests. It is vitiated from the start by the play of ' interests ', usually unavowed, and the educational issue seldom comes up for decision in a purely educational form. The Hadow Report is perhaps unique in our official literature in that it set out from a principle that was not just English but purely educational —that all education of the adolescent must be regarded as secondary. We know what practical experience has made of that and the Spens Report returns, with an almost audible sigh of relief, to the old ways. It is a far more ' English ' document than its predecessor.

But how pervasive these social influences are in English thought and practice in all that is generally taken as education ! Thus, no English school, especially at the ' secondary ' level, seems to be entirely happy unless, in its neighbourhood, there is a school of lower grade upon which it can look down. The elementary school, after more than a century, remains still unassimilated to the national life as a whole. Aspiring parents of what is called the lower middle class shun the taint of it and spend money that they can ill spare on an education that is reputed to have more ' class ' in some obscure and uninspected private school. Keen young teachers, wishing after their training course to gain some valuable experience in the elementary school before passing on to the secondary, find a formidable monster in the way. Once acquire the taint of the elementary school and how many respectable secondary schools will look at you ? Even those for whom, historically, the elementary school was designed have never taken it to themselves as they have taken the Trade Union and ' the Co-op '. It is amongst them but not of them, set down in their midst like a post office but never fully taken into their lives.

Again, the Spens Report talks hopefully, and no doubt sincerely, of ' parity ' as between the various types of secondary school that it proposes. But what hope is there of any such thing in the present condition of English society ?

Is not the same infection revealing itself in the discussions now proceeding on the matter of religious instruction in the schools ? Any one who is in touch with the elementary teachers, especially as represented by the N.U.T., knows that there is very little opposition to religious instruction as such, and indeed much support for it in principle. But what excites suspicion and apprehension is the *damnosa hereditas* of a still-remembered past when the teacher felt that he and his school were being ordered through the religious organization of the country as instruments of a social discipline exercised in the interest of a dominant ' class '. The long struggle of emancipation has left its marks, and we must not complain if it creates difficulties now.

At the moment, apparently, it is the ' provided ' school that is filling the evacuation areas with lawless little pagans. One can almost overhear the comment in the country drawing-room : " Well, my dear, you know what these Board schools are." It matters nothing that for the last forty years we have had no Board schools in England. The real point is the same, so why alter the phrasing ?

Or turn to Parliament. What prospect is there in that assembly of the settlement of an educational question on its educational merits ? Instead, would not the clash of interests be there revealed at its height ?

The result of all this is that, unlike the United States, the Dominions, and Scotland, we have no popular philosophy of education in England. To the mass of the people the provision comes from above in a form not determined by them.

The reason is plain : the divided state of the nation in this matter has deprived it of the single-minded popular

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leadership which it ought to have had, a point that Professor Laski makes with such telling effect.

It is curious that features so glaring and so all-pervading can be so strenuously denied or so easily avoided in discussion. But there they are and now they can well become fatal. For in the conditions that we shall now have to face the thing will operate as a social poison. So far from being 'natural' and 'English', a 'healthy diversity' that protects us against regimentation, it becomes now a deadly infection.

At the heart of it all stands the public school with the genuine honours of its past achievements upon it. Is it really willing now to become a chief breeding-centre of this social sepsis? One cannot believe it and I am sure that this will not happen. The honourable alternative will call for something very like heroism. But, though the actual steps are not clear yet, the way is the only real way of self-preservation. The public school may have to die in order to live again in a larger and richer national life. It has never yet failed to obey a genuine national call, and, great as will be the sacrifices that the present demand asks for, one feels that they will be made when once they are seen to be worth while.

The reward will be the educational leadership of a nation united as never before, and on a higher level than any it has yet known. It is not easy to see any other source from which really effective and genuinely uniting leadership can come.

If the schools can rise to the level of the demand they will be surprised at the response they will evoke. If they cannot, not many of us will have any further use for them.

Postscript.

Since I have been summing up a discussion and not arbitrating a quarrel it is in order to say a word about the tone and temper in which the debate has been conducted.

I cannot feel that the advantage in urbanity of manner has been wholly on the side of the defence. One defender can allow himself to speak of a weighty and representative 'opposition' as 'Messrs. Joad, Laski and company'.

It is difficult to find any parallel to this sort of thing on the other side. But on both sides it would appear that urbanity and restraint are in direct proportion to the degree of understanding of the extent and gravity of the issues.

F. C.

THE TEACHING OF FRENCH

By L. E. GENISSIEUX, Acting Director, Institut Français du Royaume-Uni

EVER since Norman French was brought into this island by the Conqueror and his barons French has been for the islanders an indispensable *langue de culture*. Macaulay once wrote that France had been the interpreter between England and mankind. Linguistically, English, whose grammar is Germanic, is largely French in its vocabulary. Culturally, through the medium of French and of the French culture, Great Britain has tended more and more to turn away from the Germanism of Northern Europe and to absorb and assimilate the Franco-Mediterranean civilization.

Quite naturally the French language has always been studied in Great Britain. Chaucer's Prioress spoke French, not indeed the French of Paris, which was to her 'unknowe', but the French of Stratford-atte-Bowe. Spenser translated a sequence of sonnets from the French of Du Bellay. Shakespeare knew enough French to write the wooing scene in *King Henry V*. Milton found in Du Bartas inspiration for his great epic. Dryden and Pope read French fluently, even though the latter, it is known, pronounced it atrociously. No English writer of note down to our own times but has been more or less deeply steeped in French culture.

When our two countries fought against each other, when France, as has happened more than once, was conquered and helpless, even then, in spite of Crécy and Azincourt, of Blenheim, of Waterloo, this linguistic and cultural link between England and France has always subsisted. When the benefit of education was extended widely to all social classes and to both sexes, the study of French formed an ever larger part of the school curriculum and of the requirements for examinations.

It can safely be predicted that this will continue. As a political power France is to-day—temporarily—as low as it has ever been. But the French language and the French culture will still be indispensable to Britons.

The reasons are not far to seek. The acquisition of any language is, indeed, a salutary training for young minds. But the learning of French means something more. Because *ce qui n'est pas clair n'est pas français*, to learn French is to learn clear thinking. The chief intellectual merit of the French is not, as is too often said, their logic, but the clarity of their thoughts. Long before Descartes made them conscious of it, they were striving after *idées claires et distinctes*. In order to pursue these ideas, in order to express them, they had need of an instrument, accurate, sensitive, precise. They forged their language and placed it at the disposal of cultured minds all over the world, the language not only of diplomacy, but of all civilized effort. See in Proust, the latest great French writer, how marvellously adequate this language is to the task of analysing and expressing the subtlest shades of thought or feeling, the most fugitive sensorial impressions.

And, when an Englishman learns the language of France, he must needs come into contact with her distinctive culture, the outcome of centuries of slow, deliberate growth. The Frenchman, intellectually speaking, is highly self-conscious. With the same care that generations of Frenchmen have bestowed on their cherished language, they have rationalized their outlook on life and what may be called their national philosophy. National in development, but universal in scope. Those abstract generalizations, those *idées générales*, of which the Frenchman is so passionately fond, without which, indeed, he cannot think his own thoughts, are meant by him to be applicable to all rational beings. French culture is the crucible in which are melted into a rich alloy and minted into a universal currency those precious ores, the particular contributions that the several human communities have to make to the common treasury of mankind. At a time when civilization is threatened by the brutal self-assertiveness of exasperated nationalism, should not this age-old French universalism come into its own? For does it not teach the Cartesian doctrine that *le bon sens*, that is to say, *la faculté de discerner le vrai du faux*, is *la chose du monde la mieux partagée*, in other words is common to all men? And, especially since the eighteenth century, has not France sought to draw the social consequences of this philosophy, and, a nation profoundly democratic, has she not preached to the world the political philosophy embodied in the Declaration of the Rights of Man in 1789—"*Tous les hommes naissent et demeurent libres et égaux en droits*"—and striven to apply it gradually to her own social structure? Through rational channels the Frenchman attains a concrete sense of that brotherhood of man which is the essence of Christianity. In fact, the philosophic assumption of anti-clerical France, when France was bitten by anti-clericalism, was not a negation of the Christian ideal, but its translation into the intellectual plane. France's creed rests on the universally valid belief in the absolute value of the individual human person, whose rights are only limited by the equal rights of each of his fellow-men. The reaffirmation of this belief might, it is submitted, satisfy

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the crying need of our troubled world for an ethical principle proclaiming its oneness, a spiritual driving force capable of inspiring all men. That is what France stands for, and that is why, even to-day, while her mutilated body is lying low, her spirit is still a bringer of light and of life. That is why a knowledge of her language and her culture will be, as it has been, a necessary attainment of the educated man to whatsoever race he may belong.

To which may be added, for the Englishman, the political necessity of a Franco-British Union. Of this union the educational aspect was brought to the front in the six months that preceded France's disaster. Teachers will remember the deliberate efforts, officially sponsored, which were made from January to June, 1940, for educational co-operation between the two countries. What a gratifying response there was on the part of the teachers of French in Great Britain! How great the number of those who availed themselves of the facilities then put at their disposal to make France, and not only French, known to their scholars! How many requests for books on France, for French magazines, for pictures and lantern slides and films! How eager the demand that the B.B.C. should develop its French broadcasts for schools! To all those for whom, in the middle of their enthusiasm, the sudden collapse of France came as a stunning blow, to those who, at the end of their teaching careers, saw at last the crowning of their life's work for Franco-British understanding, and who, after the crash, thought that their dream was shattered, their hopes ruined, their task rendered aimless, let a Frenchman say: *Ce n'est pas la fin.* There is more work to do yet, the same work as before, only more thoroughly, more earnestly, for the sake of the two countries jointly, and for the sanity of the world.

PLANNING AND EDUCATION

By Dr. H. G. STEAD, Education Officer, Chesterfield Education Committee

IT becomes increasingly obvious that the post-war world will have to be one based upon a planned economic system. The need for such planning is generally accepted and only a few visualize a return to a total or partial state of *laissez-faire*. It is further becoming apparent that the object of this planning must be production for use by all the community and not for profit by a few. It seems clear, too, that this implies state or communal control or ownership of raw materials and means of production. What is not so generally recognized yet is that it means changes in social techniques which must be prepared for and which are part of the essential function of education.

The scientific discoveries of the nineteenth century and their application to the problems of production resulted in the growth of towns on a scale quite unforeseen. On the other hand, the discovery of new means of communication and the extension of old ones knit the residents of each district more closely together, and at the same time united the various towns, both of one country at first, and more recently throughout the world, in a system from which there was no escape, even if there was a wish to find one. Men have constructed a society in which individual men can no longer live to themselves; mass production demands planning and communal control. The social techniques of an old age cannot satisfy the needs of a new one.

This admission that there must be planning and control does not mean that there will be no controversy about it when the war ends. The present struggle is significant because basically it concerns the answers to be given to two vital questions. These are:

(*a*) By whom is the planning to be done and the control exercised?

(*b*) For what purpose is the planning to be carried out and the control exercised?

Upon the answers to these questions men take their sides in the present conflict. One answer leads directly to some form or other of totalitarian government; the other leads to a socially democratic government. But planning involves thought and foresight, and preparation. What steps must be taken now if the changes are to be planned and controlled?

Planning means the loss of some economic freedom, and the willingness to accept co-operatively this loss involves the breaking down of certain social complexes. But, in return for the loss of this freedom by certain individuals, there is a gain of *security* for all the community. Security from aggression by other individuals, from aggression by other communities, and security from fears and anxieties which arise within ourselves—these are factors in the necessary background against which alone life can be effectively and happily lived.

This relinquishment of some economic freedoms will be accompanied, in a planned world, by an extension of individuality in other spheres. This is what is meant by the democratic way of life. Instead of economic liberty there is economic security, and this security is that background to life which alone can ensure freedom in all those spheres which are properly the province of individual effort. At present effort is expended in the struggle for security; often the effort is so great that there is little or no energy left for the real business of living. Planning and economic security should result inevitably in a freeing of effort for the constructive and creative work of life.

This implies, amongst many other things, a change in the relationship between the individual and the group. At present the individual tends either to belong to the group or to remain external to it. If he belongs to the group (be it political, or religious, or social, or cultural) he develops a vested interest in the group, resents any criticism of it, and is guided in his relations towards it by prejudice and emotion rather than by reason. If he is external to the group he is either indifferent to it, or is opposed to it and destructively critical of it. The need of the new order of society that is now developing is for individuals who are in membership of the group and yet retain the ability to criticize it constructively and to amend it where necessary.

These general reflections serve to bring us to close quarters with the problem of planning in so far as it affects education. In reality there are two problems:

(*a*) The position of education in the planned society.

(*b*) The planning of educational facilities.

(*a*) *Education in the planned society.*

The function of education in a planned society depends upon the answer to the question—what is the object of the proposed planning? It is clear that the purpose of education will be dependent upon the social aim of the community. A planned community cannot allow services to be isolated. It cannot allow competition between different services, nor their well-being to depend upon the forcefulness of the head of the service. In a planned society *all* services have to be considered and the function of each in regard to the aim of the planning carefully considered. The present tendency to injure the educational service in order that other services can be built up is not an example of rational directed planning, but of competition between different services. It is neither planning nor efficiency to build up one service at the expense of others. Post-war planning must be more rational than this. It must take account of the educational needs of the community and of needs in other directions, too. It must consider the

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resources available and decide how they can best be utilized. Production for use instead of for profit will see the end of the statement which has destroyed the hopes of educationists so often in the past, "We cannot afford it." What is necessary will be able to be afforded, and will be provided.

The planned democratic society will insist that its educational system shall do two things in preparing children to take their places as citizens of such a society. In the first place they must be willing and co-operative members of such a society. This means that they will have to relinquish willingly certain freedoms hitherto held to be rights. On the other hand, they will have to be constructive and creative individuals within the proper sphere for such activity. This dual demand constitutes a new task for the schools. In recent years all the emphasis has been upon individuality. This is probably due to the time-lag which always exists between the philosophy of the age and that of the schools. But now the *tempo* of life has increased and such a time-lag is fraught with real dangers to the community. Education must make a jump and must produce democratically minded citizens for a planned society. This means citizens prepared to surrender freedom in some fields because it is the necessary condition of greater freedom in others.

The amount of research which is necessary before planning can be effective is very great. But the difficulty of the task must not deter us. Much more needs to be known as to types of ability and the relationship which should exist between one type of educational provision and another. The educational system must be planned in the light of the needs of the planned society.

In a planned democratic society education will not have a favoured place nor will it be the Cinderella of the services. It will be the instrument by which the function of the society is made explicit to its developing citizens. It will not be dependent for its welfare upon whether there is an economic boom or slump, for economic planning can abolish these. It will have a planned function in the life of the society, and within this general function will have freedom to plan its particular part of the communal aim.

(*b*) *The planning of educational facilities.*

If there is to be a planned society after the war it is immediately evident that a dual task is imposed upon the educational services during the war. In the first place it is essential to maintain and extend all those activities which will aid in the development of citizens who will have an outlook conducive to the rapid and smooth establishment of the planned society. In the second place it will be necessary to consider now the changes which a planned society will make imperative in the educational facilities of the community.

The first problem has not received the attention it deserves. The calling of teachers to various forms of war service has created staffing difficulties in most schools and there are complaints that the system of specialization can no longer be operative. Further, these same staffing difficulties are held to mean less individual work and more group instruction. That these are very real difficulties may be readily admitted, but they may drive us to experiments which will bring results of lasting value. For present conditions make more communal activities in the schools essential, and these can, if rightly used, furnish a means of preparing the pupils for one side of a planned society—that in which they are willing and knowledgeable co-operators. Again, it would not be detrimental to the future well-being of Europe if all types of post-primary schools began now to centre their courses round the past, present, and future boundaries, production, and history of European countries. History, literature, geography, drama, could all be included under the general heading of the Humanities. One class or one form could take a country and specialize in it. The music of the country (gramophone records are available) could be studied and so could its religion. Lectures and dramatized versions of historical facts could serve for group work. Calculation could also be found a place and so could science and language. Craft work and art work are involved, and a unifying principle for a war-time curriculum is provided. It would mean a war-time time-table—one with less rigid divisions between the subjects. But this is an advantage rather than otherwise, for it becomes increasingly clear that the pre-war time-table is unworkable in war-time. But the supreme advantage is that it would ensure that at the end of the war there was a body of young citizens possessing some knowledge of the problems confronting their world and some idea of how to set about their solution.

And, while this task is being carried out from day to day, all educationists must direct their attention to the second task—that of replanning the educational facilities of the country. We must not be content to cry "Hadow" or "Spens" or any other name. The problem is a new one and must be thought out from first principles. Hadow and Spens can give us guidance, and the work done under the inspiration of the Hadow Reports has given us a better jumping-off ground than we should have had without them. We must as a first step replan our educational areas. The Government must revise its system of grants. We need such a system of education that there will be available at the conclusion of any one stage facilities suitable for all those capable of progressing to the next stage. We must see to it that the needs of the community for services of various kinds are satisfied. Above all, there must be provided adequate means whereby those competent to conduct research and experiment in all fields—sociology, physical science, chemistry, medicine, biology, &c., are selected and put in a position to carry out their work undisturbed by economic or other worries. Equally important is it that there should be means whereby the results of their work shall be used for the benefit of all and not for the profit of the few. This means the use of knowledge in the furtherance of the aim of society and so in increasing welfare and happiness for all.

It is impossible here to attempt to lay down in any detail the steps which such educational planning should take. All that can be done is to point out its urgency and importance, and to hope that all educationists will collaborate in working out the details, and will come to the end of the war not content to revert to the old order of things which led to it but determined to go forward to a more rational order of society and with their route maps ready.

The May number of
The Journal of Education

will include :

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS
By J. H. Simpson, The College of S. Mark and S. John.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT : "OVERCROWDING"
By S. J. Rooney, S.J., M.A.

RESEARCH AND SCHOOL WORK. I.—THE TEACHING OF READING
By Dr. C. M. Fleming, University of London Institute of Education.

DIES FASTI ET NEFASTI
By Francis Maw.

ECONOMICS FOR THE PRIMARY SCHOOL
By A. B. Hollowood.

THE MAN IN THE TRAIN
By Frederic Evans.

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
By Dr. C. Ebblewhite Smith, Associate Professor of Education, University of Manitoba.

LIBRARY DEVELOPMENTS IN LONDON AND THE HOME COUNTIES
By L. M. Harrod, Hon. Secretary, The Library Association, London and Home Counties Branch.

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THE TEACHING LIFE

III.—RESURRECTION OF THE DEAD

By "MARTHA MOSS"

THEY were almost two years gone in decay before they entered the sphere of my experience. They had begun the study of French with one teacher, had continued it with another, and in the last term of their second year were committed to my care. A remote Highland village, an understaffed school, and a total lack of up-to-date modern language equipment had perhaps occasioned the flight of my predecessors; I know not. But they fled, and fled far. And they left for me a Class II consisting of six boys and five girls who had imbibed a portion of earth's most poisonous French grammar and who were thus, to all appearances, not far from their intellectual decease. These were they:

Rebecca, in whom there still glowed little sparks of life; diligent child of an ambitious Lowland crofter whom some curious misfortune had stranded in the Highlands. Disillusioned by many years of green, ungathered harvests, he had concentrated his yearnings on four small daughters whom he wished to see "good at their books".

Ian, the son of a distant dissenting preacher; a handsome, fair-haired boy, strictly brought up, full of inhibitions, sulky, awkward, taciturn.

Ronald, whose Gaelic parentage precluded him from ever knowing what a consonant was.

Elma, smiling and good-natured, whose total lack of acquaintanceship with the contents of the said poisonous grammar-book made her the most apt pupil when the latter was scrapped.

The undistinguished others were Rita, a giggler; Andie, a red-headed crofter lad chiefly noticeable by his thunderous boots and his yearly crop of freckles; Alice, the slave of the book; Nellie, the possessor of an outstanding bunch of tough, ginger-coloured frizzy hair, and a pair of vacant blue eyes excellently matched by a dropping chin; Walter, a sickly boy just home from hospital; Gordon, a happy dunce.

And Ton'l. Don't forget Ton'l. A hairy-kneed monster, a cave-man in whose eyes gleamed the primeval forest. Ton'l, on those rare occasions when there were no peats to cart, nor potatoes to plant, nor stacks to build, on those rare occasions when he had really nothing better to do, came to school. And, if you please, Ton'l's father would have Ton'l learn French. So Ton'l would sit himself down with complacency and withdraw from the ruins of a game-bag some nondescript tatters which had once been books—but have no fear, Ton'l wasn't even on nodding terms with what they set forth.

I shall never forget our first day together.

TEACHER: *Bonjour, mes élèves!*

PUPILS: ——?

TEACHER: *Allons, bon jour!*

NELLIE: He-he-he!

TON'L (throws back his head and guffaws): Haw-haw-haw-haw! (Tumult of laughter.)

TEACHER: This *is* a French class, isn't it?

REBECCA: Oh, yes, miss.

TEACHER: Then how does it come about that you don't even know what I have said?

PUPILS: ——?

TON'L (tentatively): We wass learnin' it from ta pook. We neffer talked it at all.

TEACHER: ——?

RITA: But we can—he-he-he!—we can say poetry.

TEACHER: Oh, good. Let me hear it, Andie.

ANDIE (grins from ear to ear):

Kwand moon batoo
Sun vah soor loo——
(pause)
Sun vah soor loo——
(piteously)
Sun vah—soor—loo——

TEACHER: Sit down.

(Andie's face lights up. He subsides.)

TEACHER (looking around). Some one else.

TON'L (alarmed): I wass absent——

GORDON: Page-is-out-of-my-book.

TEACHER (sitting down wearily): To-morrow we shall begin the study of French, from the beginning.

* * *

Well, this year they are Class III. They are now eight in number. Nellie has left school, Gordon has been sent packing to the woodwork class, the inevitable haven of all happy dunces, and Ton'l, gloriously black from head to foot, has put dungarees over his peaty tweeds and mucks contentedly among the ruinous cars in the garage.

The village is little changed since the vacation, but up and down our street march companies of Indian troops in ochre turbans grotesquely completed by waterproof capes. Ian, Ronald, Andie, and Walter, who of old spent all their intervals leaning over the blacksmith's half-door, are now to be seen in an admiring semi-circle of boys and girls watching the daily parade of our defenders.

By the beginning of term I am disillusioned as to the abilities of Class III, but, with the tenacity of all the quixotic race to which I belong, I have attached myself to the lost cause and I am still trying to make them speak. We begin with a flourish, for, by sheer bullying of the powers that be, I have secured Direct Method books, attractive, interesting ones which cause a mild wrinkle of surprise on those placid brows. And then into the fight goes my whole armament, blow upon blow.

We perform small plays in which a wooden doctor questions a stone patient in an accent calculated to kill Frenchmen at the rate of twenty per second. But in the midst of my despair, am I not sensitive to a ghost of a smile on the face of my once-silent Ian?

We talk—oh, call that an exaggeration if you will!—we stammer and stutter about the things in the room, about the stories which we are now reading, for the first time, without translation.

We spread a large picture over an easel—a dreadful daub it is, with too many objects, too crude colouring, the sort of picture which is no picture at all, but what better have we? We set the boys in competition against the girls, and—well, yes, Ian and Andie would not be standing up with those fierce expressions if they were not, in some mysterious way, coming to life. The competition grows hotter, the hands flick into the air, the eyes sparkle and the tongues are loosed.

Is it possible? Is it possible that with these, the pariahs of the French department, things are really happening? Am I—oh, human vanity!—having success?

One day they are clamouring at the door. They never clamoured before. They clatter to their places and demand a song. We have a verse or two of *En Passant par la Lorraine*, and then they ask for *Il Pleut, Bergère*. When we read our lesson, they laugh at the funny parts, quite audibly. I never knew them to see a French joke before.

We then begin to construct, for the wall of our class-room, an economic map of France like the one at the end of our

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book. Ian takes home with him a sheet of thick brown paper which I rescued from last term's consignment of books, and he draws upon it a beautiful map with yellow-red outlines, and upon it, bit by bit, we gum pictures of grapes, apples, cows, hens, pigs, sardines, olives, butter, lobsters, and a multiplicity of things which we have drawn and painted at home.

That's not learning French, of course. But the hands that have gummed a bunch of grapes on the brown-paper Médoc are not unwilling to turn the pages of a French book wherein the wine-country is described. And the eyes which have so cunningly measured the proportions of that Norman apple-tree run all the more willingly over the words of the poem:

L'odeur de mon pays était dans une pomme . . .

Rita has left off giggling; and Ian is the happiest boy in the class; Walter's poor face, ravaged by illness, has lost that strained and puzzled look which came after months of absence; the staid Rebecca shoots forth an eager hand; Ronald and Andie go into rapt consultation over a word or a phrase; Alice raises her innocent eyes from the book, and when she is slow in answering there is such a waving of hands that she is stung to action, and the reply comes forth. Is the class lingering before a lesson? "*Vite! Depêchez-vous!*" cries Ian.

But the most remarkable transformation is that of Elma, the only pupil in the class who is entirely unhampered by years of stodgy bookwork. Hers is always the first hand to be raised, hers are the most natural answers; hers is the laughter that leads all the rest when the passage is humorous. Do not imagine that she is not learning grammar, however, for she is now absorbing it without knowing.

In the twilight as I am passing the temporary barracks, I have one evening the delight of hearing my boys conversing in enthusiastic French with some dark-skinned soldiers who have learned it in some Indian college.

Truly, this is the resurrection of the dead, and from now onwards I shall continue to believe that nothing, however chimeric it may seem, is ever absolutely hopeless.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AFTER THE WAR: CURRICULUM

By JOHN WILKES, Warden of Radley College

MUCH has been written in the last few months of the place which the public schools may, and should, occupy after the war in the national system of education. What follows here is not intended to be an attempt to add to, or to criticize suggestions already made, but rather to give an outline of the sort of education these schools should attempt to offer, it being assumed that, however they are recruited (and it is the hope of most of them that the basis of their recruitment will be much wider) they will try, as they have tried in the past, to "train for life rather than for living"—to train for service, and not to confine themselves to the 'vocational', in the narrow sense of that word.

Few people can be content with present curricula: but it is easier to criticize than to reform. It has indeed often been pointed out that the chief value of the public schools lies not in what is taught in school-hours, but in what is learnt from the communal life of a boarding-school, indirectly and unconsciously. This, if it is thought that the products of the public schools are on the whole good, is an argument for the extension of the boarding-school system; it does not excuse the public schools from the task of teaching the right subjects in their classes, and teaching them in the right way.

It has been observed often enough that, more and more, all schools are falling under the tyranny of examinations, and are compelled to adjust their syllabus to the demands made by them. This might not be wholly bad if the demands were reasonable, or based on an intelligible plan. That all boys, for instance, should learn something of natural science, and that some boys should specialize in one or other of its branches, is perfectly sensible; but to impose upon schools, by competition in scholarships, or in the 1st M.B. examination, the necessity that boys must specialize almost exclusively, and from quite an early age, on scientific subjects, is not sensible. Such treatment of our raw material is not education at all, and must defeat its own ends. It will have the worst effects, not merely on the individuals who have suffered in the process, but on the sciences which they hope one day to adorn. It is the whole man with whom we are concerned, not a part of one of his faculties. And, if, as may very reasonably be maintained, England is at present very badly in need of imaginative leadership, it may well be that the deficiency is due in large measure to the incomplete and one-sided education which the able men have had. A man is not a better scientist nor a better doctor for having begun to specialize intensively and exclusively at an early age in his subject. We need to learn some lessons from the versatility of the eighteenth century and the great Elizabethans. To write well, to appreciate what is noble in art and literature, to have fine sensibilities—these are not mere ornaments of life, agreeable *παρεργα*, but part of the very stuff of civilized man. To deprive the best of our children of these privileges is to stunt their growth and to limit their public usefulness.

What then should be taught? At present boys work first for the School Certificate: they try to study a great many subjects: a little Latin, so-called, just enough to satisfy the Universities' requirements: then the language is dropped, hurriedly and gratefully: a little French—for what purpose, I wonder? Perhaps a little German "because it is so useful", a little Maths., a little science, some geography, a period of English history, "English" ("English for the School Certificate"), P.T., possibly some handicrafts, and one or two periods a week of Scripture. The time-table has become very full indeed—so full that it is doubtful if any single one of these subjects can be taught thoroughly or adequately. The School Certificate is obtained—perhaps at the age of 15: and then specialization begins, often so intensive that the chosen subject practically excludes all others—the scientist, for example, may have four or five periods of German a week, still "because it is useful", and spend two more on "English", and one or two on scripture, but for the rest his time will be absorbed in science and mathematics: and sometimes the demands of classics on the classical specialist are still more comprehensive. It appears, in fact, that *before* the School Certificate too many subjects are attempted: after it, too few.

What is the remedy? To discover the best way of apportioning time to the various subjects that are to be taught, and to discover what these subjects are to be, we must first have a clear idea of what we are aiming at. And, put briefly, this to my mind means a training in the ideals of Christian civilization. The emphasis, I believe, must be on the word "Christian", though the meanings of both, separately as well as in conjunction, must be always present in our minds. And the study of the Bible, practised diligently by our forefathers to their great profit, and neglected by ourselves, should play a great part in any plan we make. It has a double function: first, but not of course foremost—and in conjunction with another study, with which I shall deal presently, it enables us to understand the origins and meanings of our civilization, as few, if any, other studies can: to abhor vulgarity and sentimentality, and to think about fundamental things: secondly it acts as a background to any teaching of Christian

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dogma. The unhappy associations of that word 'dogma' may perhaps have been dispelled, for some at least, by the recent writings of Miss Sayers, if in no other way. It is true at least that an intelligent man cannot be an intelligent, nor an effective, Christian without some understanding of Christian dogma.

Here then are two subjects—and they emphatically are not one—which must play a big part in our syllabus for boys of every type and at every age. There is another requirement which should be common to all: and that is plenty of leisure: leisure for reading (guided reading), for music, painting, handicrafts, acting, gardening—not for all these at once: but for one of these at least for every boy. Opportunities for all of them no doubt exist to-day in every school, in the sense that there are available the necessary books and experts and equipment: but there is seldom made available the time. The importance of the subjects is depressed, deliberately or unconsciously. They have to take a back seat and they deserve one right in front.

What of the other subjects which are normally taught to boys before they take their School Certificate? Latin for example? By the future scientist or mathematician this may well be abandoned as soon as it is seen that science or mathematics is the real bent of the pupil. French can go the same way: German as a "useful" subject may be retained—for German scientific works are important, though German literature is not. But, if Latin and French are abandoned and German is retained merely as a utilitarian subject, what are we to supply to fill the void? English? I believe there *are* a few men of genius in the teaching profession who can make of this a living subject for the adolescent boy, taught, that is, directly *as* English: but they are very few: in the hands of most of us, I fear, the very effort to teach English *as* English kills the subject altogether. It must be taught, but not this way. History then? History, I believe, may be the most enlightening of all subjects—but it is suitable only for mature minds. We should, I believe, give the immature mind some idea of the outline of the world's history—some knowledge of the principal movements of thought throughout the ages: to give it, or try to give it, a fairly detailed picture of a short period in the history of one country is fantastic. Then geography? I have no doubt that geography should be important in any curriculum at any age: but it is not by itself enough to fill the gap, and it is perhaps still too vague a term to satisfy our requirements. We have, however, already seen how in part to satisfy them—the teaching of the Bible of which I have spoken. Complementary to this, I believe, should be the study of Greece: not merely the study of her language—though that I think is important—but of her civilization, her science, and at a later age of her philosophy. Greek, compared with Latin, is not a difficult language. Its authors are, many of them, quite easy. It is an attractive language, and its writers supply what is so terribly lacking in our civilization to-day—dignity, proportion, austerity. The scientist cannot but profit as a scientist from understanding something of the people who gave birth to science, and the same is true of the mathematician and of the historian too. And it is of the scientists—for they present perhaps our greatest problem—that I have been thinking so far. We have for them at least a nucleus of a syllabus. Let them spend half their time on their chosen subjects: for the other half we will give them the Bible, and Greek: some geography and some world history in outline: and we will give them leisure.

But what of the stupid boy?—the boy who is not good at anything and has no particular bent for any of the subjects normally taught in school, nor much interest in any of them either? It may be said, I suppose, that such boys should not go at all to the schools of which we are thinking. But if by "stupid" we mean only slow at academic subjects, we must be careful not to fall into the trap of excluding from these schools boys who are not really stupid at all, boys who have great gifts of personality, imagination, leadership, and initiative. These we want to include: how shall we provide for them?

For them too, let us exclude Latin: neither is French a particularly fruitful subject, though it may well be studied at a later stage for utilitarian purposes. Some mathematics must be taught—though many boys may well drop the subject when they have advanced a very short distance along the road: for wild horses will not drag many of them—and many otherwise intelligent men—any distance along that road: and the wild horse method isn't really education. There must be, of course, some science—physics, I fancy, botany, zoology, but very little chemistry: and taught with the idea of giving the boy some picture of the modern world, and of what is meant by the scientific method: certainly *not* with the idea of filling his mind with scientific information. Some geography too, and an outline of world history, and the leisure and the Bible and doctrinal teaching. These will be quite enough—the "stupid" boy needs longer at each subject to go any appreciable distance than his cleverer rival.

A few boys may—but not till the later stages of their education—begin a special study of modern languages: but such a study belongs properly to the university student, not to the school boy: and these students will be the better at their subjects later on for having specialized in it late, and had Greek and Latin as a background. For Latin should be taught, as well as Greek, to the intelligent boys who are not to be scientists or mathematicians, and such boys may well drop mathematics early. There will, we hope, always be some classical specialists: and history specialists too, but only in the last year of their school life: English specialists perhaps, and again at a later stage, if we are lucky to have the rare genius who can teach this subject; and at the same stage perhaps specialists in music and in art. But specialization will never mean the exclusion of all subjects but one: and the study of the Bible, instruction in the dogma of the Christian religion, and the leisure, will be universal, for all boys, at all ages.

Here there has been attempted an outline of an answer. But there are, as we have seen, other things to be learnt at school than those learnt from masters, directly by instruction, or indirectly by some supervision of leisure-time activities. I have dealt so far with ways of enriching the mind and furnishing it, of training it and its creative instincts, of stimulating thought and imagination and helping the boy to understand and appreciate the things of value in our civilization. But there is a great deal still to be done: our concern is with other faculties beside the intellectual—with Christian conduct even more than with Christian knowledge.

There is, I believe, a real danger of letting our public schools become too soft, inasmuch as there is always present to impatient and to efficient men—and many schoolmasters are both of these—the temptation to spoon-feed, to smooth away the difficulties and to sell the boy's independence for a mess of efficiency. The more energetic and conscientious the teacher, the greater the temptation to interfere, to run things himself, and run them well, rather than to watch the boys make a muddle of it. The school should not be a place of entertainment, it must not be over-organized and over-supervised, and it must not be too comfortable. Its primary object is to give the best boys the fullest opportunities of developing; if the weaker go to the wall, abuse their freedom, misuse or neglect their opportunities, that must be faced. We must not try to rescue them by supervision or prop them up with constant guidance, if that means encumbering with help the better boys.

Further, I should like to see the lives lived in such schools harder and more frugal and more simple than the lives in other types of schools. If all sections of the community

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are to be represented in the boarding schools, there must be no contrasts between the relative luxury of school life and the relative squalor at home. It is important that the boys chosen—and their parents—should realize from the beginning that they are not chosen to be given anything softer and easier than their less fortunate contemporaries, but actually something more austere. As early as possible we should accustom them to believe (and the community at large to believe) that the prizes to be sought are not greater ease and affluence but greater responsibility.

THE AIR TRAINING CORPS

By J. F. WOLFENDEN, Headmaster of Uppingham, and Director of Pre-entry Training

ON February 1 of this year the Air Training Corps was born. Out of the Air Defence Cadet Corps, the Air Sections of School J.T.C.'s, and the University Air Squadrons has grown already a vast and enthusiastic new movement full of healthy young life. In the first fortnight of enrolment 75,000 boys joined the Corps; at the end of six weeks the total was 130,000.

There must be no misunderstanding about the Air Ministry's primary purpose in establishing this Corps. The Royal Air Force wants more pilots and observers (and therefore more technical personnel as well) to man the air fleets of this year, next year, and the years of the future. And it wants this increased number of pilots without any drop in quality. So its aim is to bring up to the R.A.F.'s standard, which must always be a high one, as many as possible of the young men of the country. Hence the Air Ministry is prepared to spend money on the pre-entry training of lads between 16 and 18 so that when they reach 18 they will reach also the standard of entry to the Royal Air Force.

That is the primary object of the scheme, and it is with this aim in view that the syllabuses of instruction have been drawn up. Some have thought that these syllabuses will in fact prove too difficult for the boy who left school at 14 to earn his living, and that therefore the A.T.C. Scheme will in practice have the effect opposite to its intention by excluding from the R.A.F. at 16 many boys who wish to join it at 17 or 18. This is a misconception. The purpose of the scheme is to bring up to R.A.F. standards any boys who are capable of reaching them, and the instructors will regard themselves as teachers rather than as examiners; their duty will be not rejecting the unfit but helping through the examinations the highest possible percentage of their pupils. There will be some boys, as every schoolmaster knows, who cannot be brought up to the required standard —just as there are some who cannot, however much they try and however zealous their instructors, ever achieve a School Certificate—but he would be a bold man who would say of a boy of 16 that he could never, by 18, reach a prescribed standard of attainment.

At the same time, there will be boys of mathematical and mechanical ability who will find the training syllabuses well within their powers. And it has been asked what they have to gain from giving their time to these studies. The answer is plain; that for whatever subjects they cover in their pre-entry training they will be given credit when they join the Royal Air Force. Either they will simply start further on in their Service training, be it for air-crew or technical duties, or, if results justify the step, there will be established a system of selective training centres, so that boys who have already covered certain parts of the Service training are required to study, inside the Service, only those subjects in which they have received no pre-entry training. By whichever piece of machinery, the same object must be attained. No boy must be expected to do all over again at a Service Training Centre the work he has already done once before joining; that would be to stultify the whole scheme. The successful A.T.C. 'pupil' will shorten his R.A.F. training.

Already, in a few weeks, the scheme has passed beyond its first phase. The first stage was recruitment; and here the Air Ministry deliberately cast its net as widely as possible. It was intended that the scheme should be nation-wide, and so the duty of taking the first step was fairly and squarely placed on the shoulders of the municipal authorities throughout the United Kingdom. Lord Mayors and Mayors and Provosts and Chairmen of Urban District Councils were asked to form local committees to set about the organization of local units. And their response was magnificent. At the same time, schools were approached and asked to form units either inside their own walls or in co-operation with the local committees. Here again the enthusiasm was striking.

By now that first general phase of recruitment is passing. Recruits are enrolling every day, new squadrons are being formed, and existing squadrons are adding to their numbers. But broadly speaking the second stage has been reached, the stage of training. And this is where the educational resources of the country must be mobilized. It is obvious that conditions differ in different places. That is why the Air Ministry has deliberately refrained from trying to lay down hard-and-fast rules to be universally applied. Local initiative, local flexibility, and local adaptation are the essence of the scheme. So no 'directions' or 'instructions' have been issued to educational authorities or to individuals; but there are some general principles which have been empirically established. Technical institutes can provide in many places much of the necessary instruction; secondary schools can provide masters and buildings, both for their own boys and for boys of local units outside the schools; individual schoolmasters are serving as members of local committees, as commissioned officers in units or as civilian instructors; local education authorities are providing classes, buildings and administrative machinery, either free or at a nominal charge. It really is true that everybody can do something, and the spirit of co-operation which has already shown itself is one of the greatest results already of this young scheme. The Air Ministry has found no cause to regret its decision to appeal to local enthusiasm. That was the keynote of the appeal in the recruiting phase; it continues to be the keynote of the appeal in this second phase, when the valuable recruiting work of the local committees must be consolidated by giving to the boys of the Corps some sound and systematic instruction.

So much for the Service aspect of the scheme; the Royal Air Force wants more air-crews and more technical personnel, and this is the machinery by which it hopes to get them.

But there are wider implications which the Air Ministry has not been slow to recognize. There is here a tremendous surge of enthusiasm. It is directed, at the moment, towards the Royal Air Force, with all the promise of danger, adventure, and glory which that Service holds out. But there is more to it than that. The Royal Air Force is a democratic Service; and it is a Force of Volunteers. Both these statements are equally true of the Air Training Corps. (There must be difference of ability and of attainment inside a democracy; nobody supposes that all men are equally well fitted for the same job. But everybody is given his chance, and everybody is equally helped towards his goal.) This cannot be without its effect on the country as a whole and on its educational system in particular. Here is the boyhood of the land, keyed up as never before, united in one common Corps for one common end. Can they be allowed, ever again, to lose this unity?

And the Air Ministry is making its contribution to the

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purely educational cause. It is obvious that those boys who are receiving technical training through the Air Training Corps must be the better for it academically and mentally as well as from the Service point of view. There can be nothing but good in their learning now what will be of use to them in peace as well as in war. Indeed, considerable pressure has already been put on the Air Ministry to lower the A.T.C. age limit of 16 so that boys of 14 and 15 may be able to take advantage of the training which is provided. It is clear to everybody that the boy who leaves school at 14 is at a disadvantage, scholastically, in comparison with the boy who stays at school. But the Air Ministry is modest enough to believe that there are other departments and authorities to whom it belongs to deal with the education of the 14–16 age-group. And it is clear that (under many authorities at any rate) the boy who leaves school at 14 has plenty of encouragement to continue his education.

Other repercussions are many and various. The juvenile voluntary organizations have from the first shown the fullest sympathy with the A.T.C. Scheme. They have been encouraged to form, within their own organizations, flights of the Air Training Corps; and there is the fullest goodwill here.

This is a big thing. It is one of the most exciting by-products of the war. Here is the Air Ministry deliberately concerning itself with the training of boys before their enlistment. It might not be easy in peace-time to excite enthusiasm for meteorology, wireless training, drill, and navigation. At the present moment the enthusiasm is spontaneous for it has a focus—the Royal Air Force.

What is going to be the focus when the war is over? Will there be anything then to stir the hearts of these boys as the R.A.F. does now? Will this enthusiasm be allowed to wane and disappear? Or will there be somebody with the vision to keep it active, to steer it into peace-time channels? The immediate practical aim of everybody is to win the war; and the Air Training Corps is a contribution to that end. But, when the war is won, there will be problems just as grave and just as pressing which will call for all the enthusiasm and devotion of our young men. The glamour and the excitement may have passed; the enthusiasm must not be allowed to perish.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE FUTURE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SIR,—I had intended to write at some length on the public-school question. I am, however, so puzzled by what I have read in the February issue that I feel quite unfitted to do justice to such a subject in any space shorter than two volumes. I must therefore treat this as an introduction and hope that you will publish my two volumes in monthly instalments over the next 200 years!

We are indeed in high politics now where the winds of Russia mingle with the hot breath of Hitler. Of course I understand Mr. S. J. Dale perfectly and I am sure that the problem could, as he suggests, be faced squarely without stupid prejudices or spleenful indulgences of rhetoric. From the other writers I gather that the educational world I have been living in for the last 25 years, in which I have taught all kinds of boys in all kinds of schools, with never a thought about their social class, is just a dream world. I gather that England is divided into two mighty camps: public-school boys and non-public-school boys, that Sir Cyril Norwood is to be made a godson of Pétain and quite unwillingly appointed leader of one side, and Mr. Worsley and Mr. Aneurin Bevan are to fight it out as to who is to lead the other. I suppose I have been a traitor to both sides all my life. I must really wake up and try to decide which to choose. There will be so many others, including Sir Cyril Norwood, Sir Frank Fletcher, and many of my friends who went to elementary schools, doing the same thing with me that I am sure we shall all get into an awful muddle. I have taught miners' sons to be good school prefects and bishops' sons to plant potatoes. I'm an outcast, a kind of 'ruddy' shirt, when every one ought to be either black or red. I don't understand shirts—I put my last one on the hope that beautiful things were more powerful in the end than ugly things. The funny thing is that there are so many other people like me and the writers haven't noticed it. I rather thought that that was what all this fuss with Hitler was about. He wants to stop us from being people and wants us to be shirts, and we don't like the idea.

Have you ever heard such generalizations? Let us take just a few prize specimens.

(1) "It is only at a public school that the necessary discipline can be relied upon to compel boys to master something which is at once so difficult and so boring as Latin and Greek grammar." Many scholarships in Latin and Greek are won each year by boys in secondary day schools admitting mainly special place-holders from elementary schools. The statement quoted therefore is not consistent with the facts.

(2) We are informed that the public schools have not changed during the last 30 years mainly because a master, who gave up teaching long ago and tried it again recently, stated that his lessons on Shakespeare were a disappointment to him. This disappointment is natural. People seldom give up teaching if they are really good at it. Incidentally, the articles of that quondam schoolmaster were very insulting, perhaps unintentionally, towards youth. I am one who has a very high opinion of modern youth and I don't like to hear it insulted.

(3) Visiting Frenchmen, says the writer of the former article, don't think much of our intellectual life. I am not surprised. The vocal sort of intellectual is quite the least impressive, and, if you don't talk, foreigners can't under stand you at all and not much even when you do. I should have thought that the existence of a great English literature alone has some significance. By the way, the universities, which are so lauded, are largely to blame for foisting most of the less interesting parts of the work on to the secondary schools; but, be of good cheer, we have them on the run.

(4) "They do not, in fact, turn out civilized men but Philistines." What is the force of the words "in fact" here? The writer has previously protected himself against criticism by confessing that he is himself a public-school boy and therefore must "in fact" have a shame of culture and be unable to be absolutely clear and precise. I am headmaster of one of these abominable institutions. I have to-day among many other things fixed up an extra dancing class for the boys, taken in 40 essays on the theories of Locke, helped the boys to sweep the chapel, and watched them playing games and painting pictures all in the same day! The worthy professor who wrote that first article was not being philosophical. He is barking up an imaginary tree and he does not wish to find out that it is not there.

(5) "I am convinced, for example, that many of the schools on the condemned list would not have remained there, had the children of the well-to-do had to use them." Surely 'fancy' would have been more accurate than 'am convinced'? Can one really be convinced when the facts are very inconclusive? Most State-supported secondary schools have far better buildings and equipment than the average public school. It seems that when speaking of the public schools these writers think only of Eton, and when thinking of State schools they think only of the most old-fashioned slum schools. There is a vast world in between where what they say does not apply.

(6) The parents of the boys at Eton and Winchester are held to be to blame for not stirring up the Board of Educa-

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tion to be more ingenious about the education of evacuees. It is suggested that they would have done so had their own boys been evacuated. Now I will admit that the way in which a few rich parents hurried their children abroad made my blood boil, but they were only a very few. They had just as much right to go as the poor, but they ought to have done what most decent well-to-do people did—let the poor have the first chance. But it also makes my blood boil still more furiously when I read nonsense such as I have just pointed out. Hundreds of public-school boys were turned out of their homes and schools; whole schools have broken up and are spread over wide areas, and not one penny piece can many of them get from the State to help them even in the task of protecting the young against hostile action. The truth is that most of this second article is pure supposition. It is easy to make statements; it is far more useful to be accurate.

(7) "Many of them want the public school to change as little as possible just as they want as little change as possible in society." This is from the third article called "Class Bias in Education". Has he asked them all, from Sir Cyril Norwood and Sir Frank Fletcher down to humble folk like me who walk in that vague middle world of society which has evidently now no place on earth and has become a shroud not a shirt? "Many" is a very big number. Again, it is not a statement of fact, it is a mere fancy. Alas, great societies are not built on factless fancy. In any case, the statement is logically inconsistent because the writer assumes that the chief characteristic of the public schools is their exclusiveness. It is therefore impossible that those reformers who wish to remove their chief characteristic want them to change as little as possible.

(8) "If we attach the public school to the State system, the next demand will be to incorporate the private preparatory school. The result would be chaos. The bewildered parent could be provided with no guide through such a morass except the interested advice of competing institutions." First, it does not follow at all that the next demand would be to incorporate the private preparatory school, and secondly the result would certainly not be chaos if only because the total child population of the preparatory schools is so very small compared with that of the elementary schools. A few elementary children might perhaps be saved a weary trudge to school by suddenly being enabled to enter a preparatory school nearer their homes than the nearest elementary school, that is about all that would happen. Isn't it odd how fanatical reformers condemn as chaos-making a perfectly quiet and reasonable democratic reform, while they are willing and eager to turn the world upside down to achieve a state which brings every one back a full circle to primitive tyranny? The truth is that steady progress, however rapid, does not make a good political platform.

(9) "Our military history suggests that the schools turn out excellent young subalterns and pilots—and brainless generals." Another nasty sneer at youth this time from a man who has given up his life very nobly to trying to cure mental invalids. That has, of course, imposed on him a certain sacrifice, far be it from me to sneer at him. I have read and profited by his books, but he cannot presume to a particularly good judgment on normal psychology when he has spent the greater part of his life in the atmosphere of the abnormal. In any case, what about General Wavell? He was at Winchester.

(10) The last article on what will happen to the public schools I have not read, first because I am not interested in the answer and, secondly, because I am not interested in what the writer might or might not have to say about it. What I am interested in is in doing my duty by the youth of England, in trying feebly, I admit, to lead them along paths towards truth, beauty, and righteousness, which in my opinion include loving-kindness, social justice, and many other desirable qualities. I know the public schools have had faults and still have some of them, but so have all schools, and our first task is to beat Hitler and his gang and then to encourage the best features in all branches of education and so weld them together that the welfare of each child according to his particular ability and inclination is the primary aim.

As a last word, all this business about the public schools is really beside the point because, fortunately, the educational ladder is now beginning to be firmly planted and as far as one can foresee, cannot fail to grow stronger. The real bottleneck is at the specialized and costly training for certain important professions, and that is really very hard on the able sons of poor parents. It is very difficult for a really poor boy, however brilliant, to become a doctor or a solicitor, or a barrister or a chartered accountant, &c. Perhaps you will allow me to write to you again on that question, which is a vitally important one.

R. C. UNMACK.

King's College,
Taunton.

SIR,—The discussion in *The Journal* on the public schools has been very useful. But one point in it which has struck me as a little odd in nearly all the articles on the subject is that few of them give one facts and figures. The truth is that the 'public' schools are not a homogeneous block. Out of the 161 existing in England (exclusive of Wales and Scotland) in 1938, there were (1) at one end 36 schools charging boarding fees of £150 and over, with 93 per cent of their school population boarders and only 7 per cent day-boys, taking no special placers, and receiving no grants of public money; (2) at the other end 70 schools charging boarding fees of below £100, with only 7·6 boarders and 92·4 day-boys, of which no less than 66 received grants of public money and 65 were required to take special placers; (3) between these two extremes an intermediate group of schools charging boarding fees of £100–£149, and including some schools resembling those in (1) and other schools resembling those in (2).

There is very little similarity between schools in (1) and schools in (2). The real problem concerns those in (1) and about half to two-thirds of those in (3). Most of those in (2) do not seem to differ much from secondary schools which are not 'public' schools.

R. H. TAWNEY.

8 King's Parade,
Cambridge.

SIR,—If Mr. Luce intends his questions as to who would do more for society—a "progressive school individualist" or a public school prefect—to be a rhetorical one, I should like to disagree with him.

Certainly, the progressive school boy has been allowed—encouraged even—to believe in self-expression. But it is self-expression and individualism as opposed to standardization and regimentation, and not, as Mr. Luce seems to suggest, as opposed to co-operation and unselfishness.

The present public school system, with its fagging traditional rules, and conventions, may turn out efficient civil servants, but will not be so likely, as compared with modern schools, to produce persons who will really help towards the improvement of society.

In my opinion, this type of character is far more likely to be obtained from progressive schools, which educate on the principle of encouraging maximum freedom in development of both thought and action.

C. A. MOSER.

5 Trumpington Street,
Cambridge.

ARMY EDUCATION

SIR,—"Correspondent" has answered himself. He asserted in your January issue that, while the Central Advisory Council and its Regional Committees would continue to

(*Continued on page 134*)

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function, the Army " has now decided to look after its educational needs off its own bat ". He now, in your March issue, slips in the qualifying word " largely ". There was no need for him to cite A.C.I. 59 as his authority. The policy set forth in that, as in all other official documents about Army education, is not only the basis of co-operation between the Services and the Advisory Council; it has been advocated by the Council from the start. Indeed, the Council has repeatedly urged that the Services should develop facilities for both formal and informal education from their own " amateur and professional talent ", and has protested strongly that such talent is in many instances being wasted.

It is well that " Correspondent " begins the last paragraph of his letter in your March issue with the words " My view . . . is ". For he proceeds to make statements about the Council for the truth of which he could have no real evidence without being present at the meetings of the Council and of its Executive. It will be noted that he bases some of these upon what he describes as " my knowledge of those who are its most active members and spokesmen ". Surely that comes very near the introduction of personal differences and prejudices which are irrelevant to corporate policy and action. The virtue of the Council is that it so comprehensively represents educational bodies which vary greatly in scope and purpose. Furthermore, his attempt to discriminate between the Council and its Regional Committees flies in the face of logic. The Council called these Committees into being to do precisely what they are doing. It coordinates and sustains them in the very activities for which " Correspondent " praises them.

The assertion that the Council wishes to detract from the healthy independence of the Army and to hold the Army in leading strings is obvious nonsense, since the Service representatives regularly attend all meetings of the Council, its Executive Committee, and its Regional Committees, in order that their guidance may enable these bodies to render from the civilian side whatever assistance is required of them in providing the widest and fullest opportunities of education in all its aspects, including the most informal, for citizens in arms.

BASIL A. YEAXLEE.

Central Advisory Council for Adult Education in H.M. Forces,
Rewley House, Oxford.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AND THE ROYAL ACADEMY SCHOOLS

SIR,—There is much that is welcome in Mr. E. Sharwood Smith's letter in your January issue about the teaching of Art in schools and the Royal Academy. The Royal Academy Schools, however, were founded as a place where would-be artists might enjoy the benefits of environment and teaching comparable with the old studio practice of the Renaissance and earlier times. A connexion of long standing has existed with the schools of Alleyn's College of God's Gift, Dulwich, and the Royal Academy. Every year a picture from Dulwich is lent to the Academy for purposes of study by its students. In addition members of the Academy pay an annual visit to Dulwich to examine the Art and award prizes.

Concern for the teaching of Art in schools and all it could mean as a contribution to progress in education is, however, of comparatively recent growth. Although drawing was included among the practical subjects for study by students in training, it is scarcely a quarter of a century ago since Sir Percy Nunn founded the Art department of the Institute of Education—a department for specialist Art teachers.

Since its foundation would-be Art teachers from all London schools of Art including the Royal Academy, the Royal College of Art, and the Slade Schools, as well as Provincial and Colonial schools, have attended the course. The Royal Academy students referred to had, while students of the Academy, passed one or other of the preliminary Art examinations, in accordance with Rules 109 of the Board of Education, before entering this institute.

Good Art teaching rarely comes without experience in teaching, and the advantage to the would-be teacher of making contact with the many aspects of the subject before taking up the responsibility of a post is surely obvious. Yet the Board of Education recently decided that students of its own college who obtain the award of its own diploma shall rank as qualified teachers without taking a course of preparation for teaching.

A misconception already exists in the minds of some heads of schools and appointing bodies about the Diploma of Associateship of the Royal College of Art which is assumed to be the ideal qualification for an Art teacher. Evidence of this is the wording of advertisements which appear in the Press advertising vacant posts.

The decision of the Board to omit the pedagogical training of its diploma students is even more serious.

What is badly needed is a body of enlightened opinion on the teaching of Art to whom the urgent problems of a greater recognition of the value of Art teaching could be referred for solution.

Mr. E. Sharwood Smith is right when he states the urgent need for " inspired " teaching of Art, but, without some insight into the problems concerned, even the most gifted artist would start with a distinct disadvantage. The potential artist without the necessary understanding, and the love of teaching (of children or adults), is unlikely to make the greatest possible contribution to the urgent need for an awakening of Art consciousness.

So far as the Royal Academy is concerned I have little doubt that, should the President submit proposals to the Board of Education for the inauguration of a full-time course of study and the attainment of a certain standard of quality of work for which the Academy intended to grant its diploma recognition by the Board would follow. The diploma visualised would probably be somewhat on the lines of the University of London Diploma in Fine Art of the Slade School. It is possible that some confusion might arise in the minds of appointing bodies in the case of the Royal Academy diploma applicant whose paper qualifications might resemble the more distinguished one of Royal Academician. There would also be the problem of the permanent exhibition of diploma works at the Royal Academy to consider, the present Diploma Gallery being one of the least known and least frequented of London's galleries. To conclude, the " breath of fresh air " will " sweep through the stale and jaded purlieus of the Board of Education and sweeten and enliven the whole of our educational system " only when sensitive artists, of whatever Art school, decide to embark on the career of teaching because they are keenly interested and love teaching. This does not necessarily mean full-time teaching. There is much to be said for the Art teacher having means and time for contemplation and creative effort in order to come fresh and inspired for the days of teaching.

H. CLARENCE WHAITE.

University of London Institute of Education,
At University College, Nottingham.

MR. CHURCHILL AND HARROW

SIR,—With reference to the letter of " Verb. Sap." in your March issue, the original note was not inconsistent with the possibility that injustice was done to local residents when day boys were excluded from Harrow, and I am wise enough to accept his assurance on this subject. The word " failure " may have been excessive to apply to the old system under which day boys were permitted at Harrow. Let us hope that Anthony Trollope's experience was not typical: " The indignities which I endured are not to be described. As I look back it seems to me that all hands were turned against

(*Continued on page* 136)

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me—those of masters as well as boys. I was allowed to join in no plays. Nor did I learn anything, for I was taught nothing."

Our public-school system is largely a Victorian, post-Arnoldian, post-railway creation. If the Board of Education compiled a public-school Domesday Book, it would be found, I have not much doubt, that the majority of the boys are in schools not ostensibly founded for the " purpose of providing education for poor scholars ". To put forward this thesis, in opposition to the Prime Minister's declaration, was the main purpose of the note.

THE WRITER OF THE NOTE.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

SIR,—In view of the interest aroused over the question of Research in Education it may be useful to repeat some observations I made in the summer of 1937 after the conference called to consider a proposal for a Bureau of Research in Education, at the Institute of Education under the chairmanship of Professor F. Clarke. The meeting was exploratory only and many obstacles to the proposal were brought up, of which the chief and fatal one was connected with finance. It was out of this conference that the movement developed and was eventually taken over by the British Association, but before that I had drawn up the following statement.

Alternative Scheme for a Research Bureau

The full scheme as suggested at the preliminary meeting is beset by two major difficulties :

i. Finance.
ii. Probable unwillingness of Universities and Training Colleges to surrender their independence.

These are largely bound up with one another by the fact that, in the hope of avoiding ii., the Director of the proposed Bureau was to be an exceptionally distinguished scholar-administrator who would have to be highly paid and supplied with a staff adequate to the dignity of his office.

The main function of the Bureau appeared to be that of directing and organizing research, but it seems clear that the first step should be to collect information. I therefore suggest the setting up of a Research Bureau on strictly limited lines; though I feel sure that if it functioned properly it would lead to the setting up of a Directory.

Functions of the Research Bureau :

i. To collect from all sources in England and Wales information as to
   (*a*) researches in education initiated ;
   (*b*) researches in education proceeding ;
   (*c*) researches in education completed ;
   (*d*) researches in education published.
   (Co-operation of educational institutions could be secured by the publication and circularization of periodic reports.)
ii. To classify, index and collate the information.
iii. To maintain an efficient index for ready reference by students or institutions contemplating researches.
   (Reference could be by post or personal inspection by subscribing members or on payment of a small fee.)
iv. To collect and maintain a library of published researches.
v. To maintain a similar index and library of researches in countries, classified by countries but with cross-references to the main (*i.e.* English) section index.

This work could be done by one secretary with a small staff of clerks, and the accommodation required would be four rooms : secretary's office, index and inquiries room, library, and a reading or consulting room.

It seems to me that if efficiently done it would quickly prove its value by the frequency of requests for information; and the need for a director of research would soon be apparent if the index revealed a serious amount of overlapping or neglect in any direction.

Nothing I then said appears to be invalidated by subsequent events; in fact my continued awareness of the amount of research that is going to waste because of the lack of some such scheme makes me wonder sometimes if researches are undertaken merely to satisfy examining bodies without any real appreciation of the value of the results to the cause of education.

ERIC ARNOLD.

Granville House,
Poplar Avenue,
Townville, Castleford.

COMMUNITY SINGING

SIR,—A correspondent in the March number of your *Journal* urges the revival of community singing. He does so with the best possible reason—for the pleasure of it. He then cites four essentials for the leader of community singing :—

1. A sense of rhythm.
2. A sense of humour.
3. A sense of interpretation.
4. A sense of audience.

Nos. 2 and 3 must be the attributes of any leader of any subject, but in any branch of music a " sense " of rhythm and a " sense " of interpretation are but as " wind upon water ". Nos. 1 and 3, especially No. 1, are the essential rudiments of musicianship and should be read thus :—

1. The complete ownership of rhythm, and,
2. The understanding of interpretation.

I stress these points because the writer goes on to say that " much good work is spoilt because these four things do not synchronize ". Let it be truly said that " much good work " is impossible without such synchronism.

Then, your correspondent says—and so rightly—" it is not enough to care for music, you must present it so that others care too ", but he adds, " in their own way, *of course* (the italics are mine) and that is what must be studied ". A certain modern musician has said that we all begin by liking bad music (may I assume that, for the moment, expostulations are not forthcoming ?) and certainly, at first, let music be presented easily, familiarly, in the way best understood by the listeners : that is, to quote a precept of every teacher, ' from the known to the unknown '. But after this, not in their own way, but in the way of a musician. Is not this the meaning, and use, of education ? So few have, naturally, the fundamental gifts of rhythm and interpretation ; and the acquiring and cultivation of them is a musician's lifetime. Therefore it must be " much in little "—which probably explains why community singing has never, to quote your correspondent, " expanded to the place it should have occupied ".

If I may add a personal opinion it is that community singing never can expand : it has no variation, no means of development ; it is one line of melody and is complete in itself.

MARJORIE BAKER, L.R.A.M.

117 Finchley Road,
London, N.W. 3.

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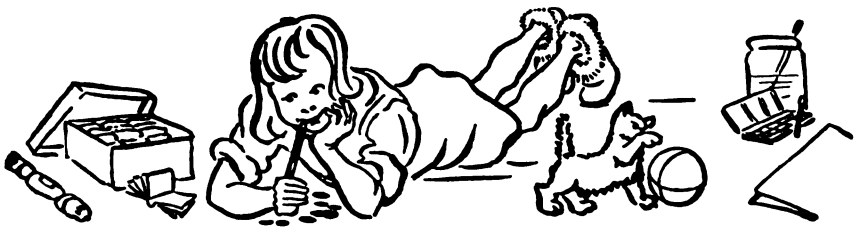

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EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

CANADA: PROVINCE OF QUEBEC

THIS volume,* says the author, " marks a new departure in educational publication. While it seeks to explain the system of education in the Province of Quebec, particularly that of the Protestant section, it also sets forth general principles of education in order that the public may be informed of the ways of life of pupils in modern schools. At the same time it contains a wealth of illustrations showing the steady improvement in the conditions of life in school ".

In Canada, the Dominion Parliament exercises no control over the Provincial systems of education. In Quebec there is a Council of Education which works through two sub-committees responsible respectively for Catholic and for Protestant education. " Quebec ", says the author, " has made up its mind quite firmly concerning the educational system that it wishes to have. This system is to be dual and is to be based upon the religion of its people. Roman Catholics will attend to their wants and needs, and Protestants will determine theirs. Each of the two large elements of the community desires to be left alone to follow its own tastes and wishes. Neither has the inclination to interfere with the rights and privileges of the other." There are a number of school boards which are in much the same position as our own boards of managers. Syllabuses and text-books are prescribed by the education committees, and teachers in these respects have much less freedom than their English colleagues. The parent has to meet the cost of school fees and of text-books, though school boards have power to grant exemption from such charges.

There is an interesting description of the development of Consolidated Schools which correspond to our Central Schools under the Hadow scheme of reorganization. Children are collected by van, and the municipalities are assisted by building and conveyance grants from the provincial government. As in this country, the new system was at first strenuously objected to owing to the difficulties of conveyance in the winter and the removal of the children from farm life. " Experience with the system ", however, " has totally changed the views of former stout opponents who have found their children more ready to attend the consolidated than the elementary school, have observed the effect of the more regular attendance, and have noticed the wider companionship opened to their sons and daughters. . . . The isolated farmer soon realized that the consolidated school was the only way by which his children could be given reasonable educational opportunities."

There is in Quebec, as in other Provinces, a considerable development of home and school associations corresponding to our parents' associations. Such associations give the parents a better understanding of the aims of the school, and these show their appreciation by frequent gifts of money and equipment. Visual education is rapidly developing, and Mr. Percival suggests that " in the future the advent of the film will be regarded as marking an advance in class-room practice comparable with that made when the printed page displaced the hand-written manuscript ".

There have been great improvements in the teaching of English. " It is the aim of the course to stimulate an appreciation of the best books in the language, to help pupils to realize the wealth of their literary heritage, to develop their imaginations by contact with the experiences described by great writers, and to interpret their own lives through the recorded experiences of others." Instead of laborious dissection of a few set books, children now enjoy a wide variety of reading. In most of the Protestant schools of Quebec, English is the medium of instruction, though French is also compulsory from the third to the eleventh grade.

In 1928 an Order of Scholastic Merit was established. There are three degrees of the Order, and awards are made as a public recognition of services rendered to the cause of education. The Order is administered by special boards, one for Catholics and one for Protestants. The boards may confer the Order upon teachers, school inspectors, normal school staffs, and members of the department of education.

Quebec has realized that the school is no longer a mere place for teaching subjects, but a medium for instruction in the whole art of living, and that, in order to fulfil this function successfully, there must be greater freedom and fuller opportunities for the development of individual interests. " The great traditions of British fair-play, of British sportsmanship and justice, of standing valiantly for truth and right must be inculcated on the frequent occasions which present themselves in their relations as schoolmates and playmates, if youth is to realize itself fully. The policy of live and let live can best be learned by a nation through its children before they pass out of their teens. Such a spirit, and not bricks, mortar, desks, and other equipment makes a school and moulds the character of men. That life is more than meat is a lesson that the schools of Quebec are endeavouring to teach. Their purpose is to assist in the development of healthy, industrious, social-minded, honest, and patriotic citizens."

* **Life in School: an Explanation of the Protestant School System of the Province of Quebec.** By W. P. PERCIVAL, Director of Protestant Education for the Province of Quebec.

NEW ZEALAND

THIS* is a valuable piece of work, well deserving the praise bestowed by Prof. Sir Thomas Hunter. Its value is chiefly, of course, for New Zealand itself, but it has features of interest for a much wider public. The pioneers of education in the overseas dominions naturally started from their experience in Britain, but more than one instance could be quoted in which they proceeded to rival, if not to outdo, the old country in point of conservatism. It is rather remarkable that in a new country such as New Zealand the secondary schools should have retained a strictly academic outlook which left no place for technical or vocational pursuits. The general effects of this policy have been unfortunate, but one good result stands out clearly. " The conservatism of the secondary schools was responsible in large measure for the development of that almost unique type of institution, the New Zealand technical high school ". So writes Sir Thomas Hunter in his foreword, and the whole story, from isolated beginnings down to the present day, is well set forth by Mr. Nicol. He concludes with interesting chapters on unsolved problems.

* **The Technical Schools of New Zealand: an Historical Survey.** By J. NICOL. (New Zealand Council for Educational Research. Educational Research Series No. 12.) (9s. net. Oxford University Press.)

U.S.A.

A STUDY recently taken of 1,000 American school boys in Connecticut indicated some of the underlying causes of maladjustment to school. It was found that many of them lacked the ability which warranted their continuance at school to be followed by higher academic work, and that there was a general tendency to be ' hand-minded ', that is, a preference was shown for work with the hands rather than for academic studies.

Many boys who had the necessary ability to carry on at school for higher studies admitted that they preferred to leave and take up work with their hands. The purpose of the inquiry was to discover how necessary vocational education is in the school curriculum.

(*Continued on page* 140)

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Recently the *Teachers' College Record* carried a very interesting article written by Paul V. McNutt on the question of Federal Aid in Stimulating Education for Work. Other contributors to the paper also dealt with the same problem in their own specialized spheres.

In a foreword, Drs. Lee, Kitson, and Forkner wrote that " any realistic program of education for work must be based on a continuing analysis of the social and economic needs and trends of the total area served by schools ".

The authors, however, are not narrow in their concept of work and agree that work may be simple in both the duties to be performed and the knowledge and skill required, or it may be extraordinarily complex and requiring judgment of a high order.

Mr. McNutt, who is Administrator of the Federal Security Agency, stresses the importance of teaching economic efficiency. He writes: " Young people, wherever they are, must learn economic efficiency—how to earn a livelihood and to manage their affairs with ordinary prudence; they must master human relationships—how to get along with other people, including their families; they must learn civic responsibilities—how to carry their load in the common affairs of the common life; and they must achieve general culture—how to take part in and appreciate the great and beautiful things that men have said, and thought, and made."

He believes that new methods must be devised for relating education to all of life—especially in the areas of civic and occupation competence. He wants to see more Federal aid given to school districts and if necessary to individual students who need special vocational education opportunities. In this way only will it be possible to " reduce idleness among youth ".

Prof. Donald P. Cottrell agrees with Mr. McNutt and stresses the view that much effort in vocational education loses the confidence of educational leaders because it fails to incorporate satisfactory cultural and civic materials and activities.

It is estimated that there are about 5,000,000 out-of-school and unemployed youth in the United States. This unsatisfactory condition is severely critized, particularly on the political side. Children who have no cultural background generally have few interests and become prey for agitators who may well rope them into political movements aimed at destroying Democracy.

Some of the authors, while agreeing that the problem is of nation-wide interest, insist that in the main it remains for local government to put it right. For example, at Williamsport, Pennsylvania, courses of training for types of work that are not to be had in the town are ruled out as a waste of the taxpayers' money and the students' time. Only that type of work which can be obtained in the district is taught—a short-sighted view.

Other writers have asked educational authorities not to overlook the mental agility of students just because they may appear slow, or even because they show a preference for hand-work. As one writer put it: National Defence emphasizes the need for workers; but it would seem highly desirable that the schools should keep in mind both the high intelligence quota and the ' hand-mindedness ' of its students and try to do something for both.

S. H. KAHN.

THE January *News-Bulletin* of the Institute of International Education, New York, contains an article by Edgar J. Fisher, Assistant Director of the Institute, on " International Education and Intellectual Security ". Insecurity, he points out, is fatal to peace in the world of thought as well as in economics and politics. Intellectual insecurity follows in the train of economic and nationalist fears. The more extended this intellectual insecurity becomes, the more poverty stricken is the world's immediate future bound to be. Totalitarian education embraces the regimentation of the intellect and demands obedience to political control. Admission to higher educational institutions depends not upon intellectual ability but upon political record. The most disastrous effects are shown in the fields of the humanities and social sciences, because their disciplines must be completely subordinated to the political ideology of the particular totalitarianism, regardless of what research and experience may show in other lands. Although the disturbance to intellectual life is not so complete in the mathematical and physical sciences, the academic black-out in these fields is almost as serious, because political, racial, and religious persecution has driven the ablest scholars of the totalitarian lands into exile abroad or into unfruitful quiescence at home. The totalitarian attitude is summed up in the statement issued by an official, " We do not know of nor recognize truth for truth's sake nor science for science's sake ".

Obvious results are that entire universities have been destroyed and their faculties thrown into concentration camps, executed or exiled; others have been closed; some have been transplanted to new locations, with remaining members scattered.

Unless the world can attain and protect intellectual security, we shall not recapture even the degree of economic and political security that we had before 1914, to say nothing about making it more widespread. We must protect ourselves against the regimented belittling of the individual and the complete disregard of the worth of personality which are characteristic of any totalitarian ideology.

The totalitarian states produce an intellectual black-out because they not only justify but glorify force and violence. Security will come only when education can again reflect an atmosphere of freedom. That is why the strengthening and preservation of the democratic processes are of such deep significance to culture. It is imperative that every possible channel of cultural interchange should be maintained in times of war as well as of peace.

The December issue of *The Phi Delta Kappan* is mainly concerned with Rural Education Trends, and the classroom problems to be faced daily by the 130,000 teachers of one-room schools, who need to understand the ends that an educational programme should serve in rural areas under present-day social and economic conditions, and the problems that the children in those areas have to face.

S. B. L.

THE Johns Hopkins University Circular for November, 1940, contains the report of the President of the University for 1939–40. Full lists of publications are included for all departments. Degrees were granted to 474 persons (52 women). These include 68 doctors of medicine (7 women) and 45 doctors of philosophy (3 women). The teaching faculty numbers 765. There is an important College for Teachers with an enrolment of 1,581 of whom 59 graduated Bachelor of Science. The subjects of dissertations for the Ph.D. degree include " The effects of praise and blame as incentives to learning ", " The Marxian theory of education ", and " The influence of school size on academic achievement." The total registration of students was 5,144. This includes 3,229 in afternoon and evening courses and 946 in the Summer School.

The Report of the Carnegie Corporation of New York for the year ended September 30, 1940, states that 3,450 individuals are receiving pensions from the Foundation, originally established in 1905 for providing pensions for retired professors in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland. In 1936, $350,000 was granted to Harvard Dental School to assist dental research and training, and this has been supplemented by $650,000. Total grants in 1939–40 for general and higher education amount to $953,765. This includes $22,500 to the Institute of Education of the University of London in support of the Department of Overseas Students. Total appropriations

(*Continued on page 142*)

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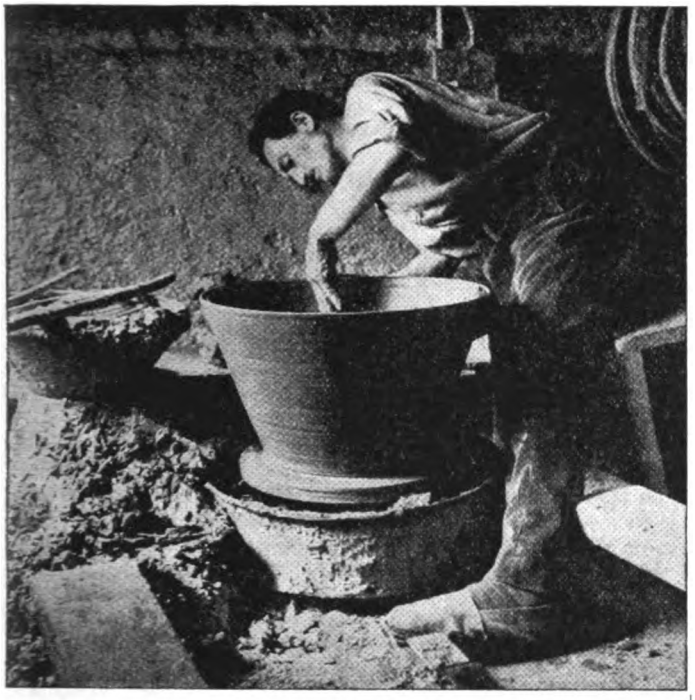

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in the same year, amounting to $4,692,682, include library interests, adult education, the arts, research, studies and publication; and general. $411,500 of the total comes from the British Dominions and Colonies Fund.

In the Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching for 1939–40, Dr. Walter A. Jessup contrasts American, German, French, and English higher education. He notes the recent fall in the number of university students in Germany from 130,000 to 84,000 and the strong political influences in French education. Diversity, he suggests, is the keynote of British education. In the United States, student loans have multiplied rapidly. Self-help students are doing fully as well as others. The British discouragement of students "working their way through college" is regarded with surprise; but there are signs of reaction against the system in the United States. The amount expended by the Foundation in 1939–40 was $2,188,231, mainly in retiring allowances and educational inquiries. T. Ll. H.

NEW MEDIA

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By R. S. MILES

MANY teachers, like myself, must have used with enjoyment and profit the excellent films distributed gratis to schools, approved societies, and institutions by the British Commercial Gas Association, Gas Industry House, 1 Grosvenor Place, London, S.W. 1.

The films listed in the free catalogue may be divided into three categories. The first section contains 'Sociological' films; the second 'Technical', and the third 'Advertising' films. The first two divisions are the most useful from an educational point of view, and of these those in the first group have given opportunities for some of Britain's finest film-makers to demonstrate John Grierson's theory that here, "in the reporting and interpretation of fact, is a new instrument of public influence, which might increase experience and bring the new world of our citizenship into the imagination".

These films are: "Enough to Eat?", "Children at School", "The Smoke Menace", "New Worlds for Old", "Housing Problems", "Kensal House", and "The Londoners".

These films are undoubtedly useful for all types of audience from the class-room audience to heterogeneous cinema audiences. The specific usefulness of each depends upon the teacher or lecturer, the type of audience, and its requirements. There cannot be made any hard and fast rules for methods of use or types of persons for which each is specifically suitable, but all those who have to do with education in any of its ramifications should make acquaintance as soon as possible with these fine productions.

"Enough to Eat?"—Commentator, Prof. Julian Huxley. This deals with the all-important question of diet. The incidence of poverty is shown to be the primary cause of malnutrition. The effects of this are shown and actual dwellers in the slums, in interviews, pathetically outline it. Steps that are being taken to combat the menace are shown, clarified by diagrams. The problem is outlined and a means of solution shown in twenty minutes of vivid film.

"Children at School", like the previous film, contains no propaganda for the Gas Industry. Instead it attempts, what is really impossible within the scope of one film, to show the problems of modern education, and how they have been solved in some places. It is a brilliant essay in the pictorial presentation of a question which is all-important for a democracy. The commentary is adequately spoken by a distinguished journalist, H. Wilson Harris, Editor of *The Spectator*.

"Housing Problems", "Smoke Menace", and "Kensal House" have a more definite advertising content, but that does not make them any the less interesting or valuable. Indeed the necessity for modern means of heating and lighting is an integral part of the films' message. After all, the answer is either "Gas" or "Electricity". In one film it is admitted that for lighting electricity is preferable!

"Housing Problems" treats the question of slum clearance by comparing the old conditions of existence with the new ones of living in modern flats. The pictorial images are supplemented by vivid descriptions from people themselves who have experienced the metamorphosis, and, if this film has any weakness, it is that the new dwellings shown are flats and not the cottage type of slum clearance house. The film would certainly have gained from the juxtaposition of the two.

"Kensal House" shows a community newly settled in their new homes—the flats, their disposition for the maximum light, their equipment, the nursery school, the club, the recreation ground, &c. This experiment in 'living together' would be a praiseworthy effort on the part of an enlightened municipality, but it becomes really inspiring when it is realized that the whole place is built and run by the gas company on the site of an old gas-works.

"The Smoke Menace" puts into vivid pictorial terms the evils which result from the unscientific use of coal—the effects upon health, upon buildings, upon peoples' pockets individually and collectively. Its message is clear and given in an interesting manner.

Paul Rotha's film, "New Worlds for Old", with a commentary by that fine film critic Alistair Cooke, is an ambitious three-reel effort to put on to the screen that most difficult of all teaching subjects—History.

The Gas Company is also responsible for "The Londoners". This film puts, as adequately as one film can reasonably be expected to, the multitudinous activities of the greatest municipality in the world. As a means of conveying the importance of democratic achievements, this film goes very far: for the teacher of civics it is invaluable.

The second group of films has particular interest in the present circumstances, for most of them deal with cooking, the emphasis being on economical cooking. One "Plan for Living" has been reissued in a special war-time version; two others, "Green Foods for Health" and "Cheese", have been made since the war began to help housewives in the selection of dishes, and should prove most useful to women's organizations. Another, "The Obedient Flame", is a new film which stresses the scientific reasons for the economy of the gas cooker. Other films in this section are "Party Dish", "Scratch Meal", "How to Cook" (all containing M. Boulestin, the famous *restaurateur*), "Daisy Bell Comes to Town", "Warming Up", "Pots and Plans". All stress the advantage of cooking by gas. The names of the directors are sufficient to guarantee their excellence—Arthur Elton, John B. Holmes, and Frank Sainsbury. These films are specifically a woman's dish from the senior school onwards. Still in the technical group are films of a more general appeal—"Dinner Hour", "Men Behind the Meters", "Romance of a Lump of Coal", "The Manufacture of Gas", and "The Man who Knew too Little". This last is a humorous and most effective treatment of gas and its by-products. It proves most successful as an addition to any programme in school or out, the laughs it raises drive in more effectively than much talk could the multitudinous by-products of gas production.

"Happy in the Morning", "Getting into Hot Water", and "Two Frightened Ladies" are three advertising films which are excellent additions to any programme whether of club or of school.

(*Continued on page* 145)

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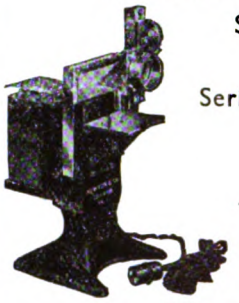

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VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN TRINIDAD. *By I. Moreland Hopkins.*

THE PLACE OF MATHEMATICS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM. *By Arthur Mayhew.*

NOTICES.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION IN THE COLONIES.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES.

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

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Latest additions are: "What's for Dinner?", "It Comes from Coal".

Hitler has shown on the screens of the world much German propaganda. Let our Ministry of Information put on those screens "Housing Problems", "Enough to Eat", &c. We need not shirk the comparison. These films show a free people working to a better destiny through its own effort and will. We see our faults and acknowledge them. There is no blatant self-adulation in those films but a sober honesty. This must appeal to all who have not lost every sense of proportion. Let our own people see these films again and again. Let all see the end for which we are struggling. Films like these add point to Mr. Morrison's "Go To It".

TOPICS AND EVENTS

SIR WALFORD DAVIES

THE death of Sir Walford Davies has come as a personal loss to many thousands of people, including teachers and school children, who, through his talks on the wireless, have become interested in music and in musicians. Sir Walford was a great teacher, and had the gift of establishing a personal relationship with his audience, seen or unseen. He was knighted in 1922. In 1927 he became organist and director of the choir of St. George's Chapel, Windsor, and in 1934 he succeeded Sir Edward Elgar as Master of the King's Musick. In this capacity he organized the Jubilee Concert in the Albert Hall in 1935, and took a prominent part in arranging the music for the Coronation of King George VI, on which occasion he was created K.C.V.O. During latter years he endeared himself to all classes of people by his wireless lectures, illuminated always by his generous and sympathetic qualities of character.

THOMAS HENDERSON

IT is with the deepest regret that we record the death, in an Edinburgh nursing home, on Sunday, March 9, 1941, of Thomas Henderson, B.Sc., F.R.S.E., F.E.I.S., the General Secretary of the Educational Institute of Scotland and Editor of *The Scottish Educational Journal*. In an interesting obituary notice *The Scottish Educational Journal* remarks: "With the death of Mr. Henderson there has passed from Scotland one of the outstanding personalities of its cultural life, one whose gifts of mind and heart were recognized and appreciated far beyond the frontiers of his native land."

Employment of Children in Agriculture.—Within the limits permitted by the law, there is scope for the employment of children over 12 years of age during school holidays, particularly in agricultural operations. The Government therefore look to local education authorities and governors to arrange school holidays—if necessary at short notice—for those periods when the need for seasonal agricultural labour is greatest. Since agricultural needs vary considerably, even within a county, the holiday period for each school should conform to the agricultural needs of its immediate neighbourhood. In secondary schools, parties of pupils should be organized under proper supervision to visit local farms on certain days in term time in order to help with the work of planting and lifting potatoes. Such parties should be limited to pupils over the age of 14, and care should be taken to ensure that the efficiency of the curriculum is not seriously impaired. The Board of Education urge local education authorities and school governors in agricultural districts to collaborate with County War Agricultural Executive Committees in this matter. By participating in the vital task of increasing the home production of food, children will be making a most valuable contribution to the prosecution of the war.

School Holidays at Easter.—School holidays at Easter are to conform to the agricultural needs of each district. In a memorandum just issued the Board of Education state that the duration and timing of the holiday are to be left to the discretion of local education authorities and governors who are asked to discourage children from returning to the evacuation areas, and to arrange for all school buildings and playgrounds to be kept open in the reception areas for recreative activities. The children should be kept happily occupied and off the hands of the householders as much as possible. Teachers' holidays are to be staggered to leave a sufficient proportion of them available for supervisory duties and teachers on holiday should be readily available if called for in an emergency.

Local Surveys.—The Board of Education have on various occasions recommended the carrying out of local surveys as part of the instruction in geography, and teachers in schools of all types have been quick to realize the educative value of work of this sort. The character of the survey naturally varies according to the age of the pupils, but it frequently covers such matters as map-making, a study of the rotation of crops and agriculture, features of local interest, the trades and industries of the area, and particulars of temperature and rainfall. While the Board are far from wishing to discourage the continuance of activities of this sort, they are reminded by the Home Office that the acquisition and recording of information of this sort may unwittingly involve those concerned in a breach of Regulation 3 of the Defence Regulations, the provisions of which relate to safeguarding information useful to the enemy. Obvious examples will suggest themselves. Thus, a survey which indicated the presence in a particular place of large stocks of food or other commodities would be of definite value to the enemy. Attention is also drawn to Regulation 5 of the Defence Regulations and to the Control of Photography Order (No. 1), 1939, which prohibit the making of photographs, sketches, and plans of certain premises and objects without a permit from the military authorities. Local education authorities and governing bodies are accordingly requested to take steps to ensure that particular care is taken to confine such surveys to places and to matters information in regard to which could in no circumstances be of value to the enemy.

Billeting of Children in Employment.—Circular No. 2294 of the Ministry of Health refers to the position of children billeted in reception areas who leave school to take up employment. Unless evacuated from the coastal towns these children at present cease to be entitled to be billeted, and, if their wages are not sufficient to support them away from home, they tend to return to the dangerous areas. In the circumstances, the Minister of Health has decided that an evacuated child should continue to be billeted for a limited period if he takes up employment which either has been obtained through the local Employment Exchange or Juvenile Employment Bureau, or which the Exchange or Bureau agree would have been regarded as suitable for the child if they had been placing him. It will be a condition of the arrangement that the wages paid should not be below the wages generally paid by good employers in the neighbourhood for similar work.

Billeted children who are in remunerative employment will be required to contribute towards the cost of their billeting and the Minister requests that billeting authorities will undertake the collection of the contributions on his behalf. Normally children should be expected to repay an

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amount not exceeding half of the gross wages earned, but where this would cause hardship the assessment may be at a lower figure. Billeting should cease when the wages earned equal twice the amount of the billeting allowance. In any case, billeting should not continue after the child has reached the age of 17, or, in the case of children leaving school after 16, for longer than one year after the child has left school.

If a child ceases to be employed, contributions may be excused in whole or in part whilst he is available for and seeking fresh employment by registration at the Employment Exchange or Juvenile Employment Bureau. If the child is absent from work on account of sickness and not in receipt of wages the contribution may similarly be excused. The Minister thinks it most important that children who have reached the school-leaving age and are still billeted should not be left without occupation. Until employment is obtained, therefore, steps should be taken to see that children either continue to attend school or are found some other suitable occupation, *e.g.* helping in a community or nursery centre for evacuated mothers and children, and the continuance of the billeting should be made conditional on one or other of these arrangements. Children who have spells of intermittent unemployment should be similarly occupied whilst billeted.

Fire Watching in Schools.—Education authorities in districts in which the Fire Prevention (Business Premises) Order, 1941, has been applied have been instructed by the Board of Education and Scottish Education Department to notify the Regional Commissioner of their arrangements for carrying out the provisions of the Order in schools under their charge. The managers, governors, or proprietors of schools not under the management of education authorities are to notify their arrangements to the town council, which, in their case, is the " appropriate authority." It is recognized that in many schools the caretaking and teaching staff will be insufficient to supply the fire parties able to serve for forty-eight hours a month. It is not contemplated, however, that paid fire watchers and fighters should be employed. If the personnel cannot be recruited from the caretaking and teaching staff, from volunteers, whether men or women, from parents and friends of the schools, or from older students and trainees, or by joint arrangements with adjacent occupiers, the further steps to be taken will be for the " appropriate authority " under the Order to determine. In these circumstances, any arrangements that may have been made by education authorities, in the areas in which the Orders are applied, for the employment of paid fire watchers should be wound up as soon as possible. In other areas such arrangements may continue, but no further paid watchers should be appointed.

Special and Free Places, 1941–42.—The Board of Education have decided to extend to the year 1941–42 the concession which was announced for the school year 1940–41, in regard to special and free places. It will therefore not be necessary, in calculating the number of admissions in the school year 1940–41 on which the percentage of special or free places for 1941–42 is to be based, to take account of any pupils who have previously been on the registers of, or were due to be admitted to, another grant-earning secondary school in the current school year, and have been moved to the district because of the war. It is probable that some children who would otherwise have attended public elementary schools may have been out of school or attending private schools during the periods in the school years 1939–40 and 1940–41 when work in the public elementary schools was suspended or seriously interrupted from causes arising out of the war. Such children need not be regarded as disqualified for free places.

The School-Leaving Age.—The following resolution was recently passed by the Committee of the Workers' Educational Association: " The Workers' Educational Association welcomes the declaration by the President of the Board of Education in his speech at Oxford on January 2 that the raising of the school-leaving age to 15 remains the policy of the Government, and that, in his view, this measure must be followed, as soon as this is feasible, by a further advance to 16. The Association urges the Board of Education to undertake without delay a survey of the extent to which the necessary preparations have been made by local education authorities, and where necessary to initiate action to speed up such preparations. It also urges that, in planning the stages of further advance, the Board of Education should base its policy from the outset on the achievement of complete provision for the varied needs of all young people through different types of full-time education up to the age of 16, followed by day-time continuation classes from 16–18 for all who do not remain at school after the age of 16." Problems that would arise on raising the school-leaving age to 15 immediately after the war were referred to Mr. J. Chuter Ede, when speaking at a session of a week-end course for Doncaster teachers. He said that raising the school-leaving age would involve preparations of two kinds—buildings and curricula. Bringing all forms of education for children over 11 years of age under one set of regulations would mean a great expansion of the amenities available for the children in the senior schools. With smaller classes, better playing fields, practical rooms of wider range, and better equipment, the teacher would find the physical conditions of his school a help to sound educational practice. Teachers should not talk of " the extra year " as if it were to be an extension of school life on the lines of the Standard ex-VII which the oldest of them would recall with humour and despair. They must devise in each senior school four-year courses for the ages 11–15 in which the individual child could find his personal needs met. Each senior school must examine its own problems in the light of the district it served. Regard must be had to the homes from which the children came, and the employment they were fitted to follow when school life ended. Senior schools would be schools in which citizens of differing abilities and aptitudes would find constant opportunities for enlarging their own capabilities.

A P.E.P. Broadsheet.—After appearing regularly for just over four years, *Planning* had to be suspended in May 1940, not because to continue publication was in any way impossible, but because P.E.P. was not willing to issue broadsheets which might fail to reach the accepted standard owing to the growing difficulties of maintaining effective group work by informed and active people. Now, however, arrangements have been made to resume the issue of broadsheets at more or less regular intervals. The present broadsheet analyses the experience of London under bombing, and examines sympathetically but critically the part played by the Civil Defence services and the Health services, going on to stress the need for broader measures in order that London's physical resistance to infection may be kept up, and infectious cases spotted and isolated quickly, if possible before they enter the shelters. Many more safe shelters are urgently needed. The requisitioning of safe basements and accommodation on the ground and lower floors of steel-framed buildings would yield a considerable amount of shelter space and need not involve serious delay. London is a region within which the health and casualty services should be planned by one authority, instead of by ninety-five local authorities and several regional bodies. The time has now come to make the evacuation of school and pre-school age children living in the L.C.C. evacuation areas compulsory, subject to a ' contracting out ' clause to cover parents who can show good reasons why their children should remain with them. Far-reaching measures for relieving the strain on London's transport system are

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needed. Meanwhile we have not come to the end of the bombing, and full preparations to withstand heavier attacks should be made. P.E.P. will endeavour to go on producing these broadsheets as frequently as possible, and recipients are asked to contribute not less than £1 a year. The Editor, 16 Queen Anne's Gate, S.W. 1, will welcome criticisms and suggestions.

Science Masters' Association.—The Report for 1940 shows 2,637 members in 950 schools. There is a slight increase in the number of schools represented. As there were few criticisms of the School Certificate Science papers, it was not considered necessary to summon a meeting of the Examination Sub-committee. Income amounted to £1,380 8s. 9d. The largest item of expenditure was in respect of the *School Science Review* at £508 16s. Investments (at cost) amount to £3,068 5s. 2d.

The New English Weekly.—In *The New English Weekly*, Pontifex II has something to say about "the notorious scandal of enormous classes". "While our active educational agitators have been calling for the stars and the moon in the shape of secondary education for all, education for leisure, equal pay for equal work, and the like, they have failed to get the most wasteful inefficiency of the very large class brought to an end despite a steady fall in the number of children of school age. This inefficiency rapidly increases over forty, and though forty is too large a number, it might be fixed as a provisional maximum likely to be accepted. A lower limit for secondary schools is dictated by the volume of written work to be done and gone over. Forty children of 10 years of age do not impose the burden which twenty-five of 15 or 16 do in the matter of language exercises, essays, mathematical work, and so on, while the most effective ways of teaching a modern language require considerably smaller forms still." There is much sound doctrine here, though some of us want to see a maximum of twenty-five in *all* schools.

Have You Read . . . ?—Mr. H. R. Chillingworth's article in the same journal entitled "Have You Read . . . ?" also deserves serious attention. He says: "I wonder whether a curriculum may not some day be devised in which room will be found both for the Bible and the classics. For the classics in translations of course, for the modern world cannot afford to spend on Greek and Latin grammar and vocabulary time that might be spent in acquiring the contents of the best Greek and Roman literature. For us the best will be prose; the essence of classical poetry will, I think, always escape us; and not in translation only. But satisfactory translations of histories and speeches are possible, and boys and girls ought not to leave school unacquainted with such a unique masterpiece as the *Apology of Socrates*. If we could arrange that all young people should know the best stories in the Bible and the great chapters of the Old and New Testaments, something from Herodotus, Xenophon's account of the expedition of Cyrus and the Retreat of the Ten Thousand, Plato's *Apology*, the best of Caesar's *Commentaries* (dry as they are), and three or four of Shakespeare's greater Plays, we should do something towards the creation of a common background in their minds; and we might help them to see national movements in something like a correct perspective. Adults would continue to differ in their choice of modern books, but common knowledge of some of the great books of the world should facilitate mutual understanding."

The National Book Council.—A letter from the Poet Laureate accompanies a booklet recently issued by the Council entitled "The Need for More School Books". It brings out present deficiencies in a striking way. For example, out of 180 areas investigated, 62 spent less than 1d. per week per child and 99 spent less than 1½d. for

(Continued on page 148)

The pond'rous wall and massy bar,
Grim-rising o'er the rugged rock,
Have oft withstood assailing war,
And oft repell'd th' invader's shock.
Burns.

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infants' schools; 35 spent less than 1½d. and 96 spent less than 1¾d. per week per child for junior schools; 18 spent less than 1½d., 66 spent less than 2d., and 98 spent less than 2½d. per week per child for senior schools. These sums include stationery and materials as well as books, so that the amount available for books is less than half that quoted above. As Mr. John Masefield says, the need for books, which was great before the war began, is now imperative. The sum spent on running the war for half a day would endow every school library in this land with a wealth of books beyond our dreams.

Queen's College, Oxford.—The Queen's College, Oxford, celebrated on February 10 the sixth century of its existence since the sealing of its Statutes by Robert Eglesfield. Throughout its life the college has been the home of north countrymen, though the monopoly of Cumberland and Westmorland ended in 1858. Among its *alumni* are Queensmen who contributed to the founding of new universities—Columbia (Miles Cooper); London (Bentham), and Durham (Bishop Van Mildert). The *Oxford Magazine* for February 25 includes an interesting article on the history of the College by R. H. H.

Good Fare in War-time.—This is the title of No. 3 in the series of Food Education Memoranda issued by the Board of Education. The previous pamphlets in this series offered suggestions for making full use of home-produced foods for family meals, in particular of salads and vegetables. The present pamphlet is intended to help in the choice of other foods particularly suitable for conserving health. An example of a series of meals containing a wide variety of foods intended for the main meal of the day is included. Suggestions are also made for packed meals. The pamphlet is published by H.M. Stationery Office, price 3d.

The Ling Physical Education Association.—The Ling Physical Education Association is holding an Easter Holiday Course at the Bedford Physical Training College from April 15 to 18. Among the speakers will be Dr. Vaclav Benes, of the Czech Ministry of Foreign Affairs in this country, Mr. E. Chuter Ede, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, Dr. Janet Aitken, Senior Physician, Elizabeth Garrett Anderson Hospital, and Mr. Claude Bridges, Assistant Secretary to the Middlesex Education Committee.

The New Education Fellowship.—A Week-end Discussion on "A New Deal for Youth" (open to non-members) has been arranged by the New Education Fellowship. It will be held at Somerville College, Oxford, from April 18 to 21. Mr. J. Compton, Director of Education, Ealing, will take the chair, and speakers will include Dr. Karl Mannheim, Professor A. E. Morgan, Miss Evelyn Gibbs, and Mr. W. Monteith Brown. Inquiries should be addressed to Mr. V. Ogilvie, N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1.

Rockefeller Medical Studentships.—The Rockefeller Foundation has generously intimated its readiness to make a grant of $100,000 with a view to aiding in the training in their clinical years of British medical students at a time when they may be deprived of the usual facilities and opportunities for their medical education. The grant will enable some twenty-five to thirty studentships to be granted—the amount of each covering the cost of tuition and living for two or three years. Arrangements have been made for the reception of the holders of these studentships at a large number of universities in the U.S.A. and Canada. A British Committee, consisting of: Professor J. S. B. Stopford (Chairman), Professor H. R. Dean (Vice-Chairman), Professor H. W. B. Cairns, Mr. H. L. Eason, Professor G. E. Gask, Mr. G. F. Gibberd, Dr. A. M. H. Gray, Professor A. V. Hill, Surgeon Rear-Admiral J. W. McNee, Sir Walter Moberly, Sir Franklin Sibly and Mr. W. B. Brander, of the Universities Bureau of the British Empire, c/o University College, Gower Street, London, W.C. 1 (Secretary), has been set up, whose duty it will be to select from amongst those nominated by Deans of Medical Faculties, schools and other institutions, those to whom they consider the studentships should be awarded.

Amy Johnson Scholarship in Aviation.—Many men and women all over the world will wish to perpetuate in some suitable form the memory of Amy Johnson, the lone girl pilot, whose achievements were such a notable contribution to civil aviation. The most appropriate tribute to Amy Johnson's memory would be to give effect to a proposal with which she was personally connected—the founding of a scholarship in aviation for a woman. Such a scholarship would be the first provision ever made for women to attain professional standard in aviation, except at their own expense. An appeal has therefore been launched, sponsored by the Viscountess Astor, C.H., M.P., Colonel the Rt. Hon. Lord Sempill, A.F.C., and Sir Malcolm Campbell, M.B.E., Miss Caroline Haslett, C.B.E., President, Women's Engineering Society, Miss Pauline Gower, Commandant, Women's Section, Air Transport Auxiliary, and Mrs. Gabrielle Patterson, A.T.A., and Guild of Air Pilots and Air Navigators of the British Empire. It is proposed to invest all money in War Bonds during the war, so that donations will at the same time materially assist the war effort. The conditions which will obtain after the war can only be conjectured, but the Guild of Air Pilots and Air Navigators of the British Empire have agreed to act as technical advisers regarding the administration of the Amy Johnson Scholarship in Aviation, and they will also assist in the selection of candidates. It is further hoped, on the conclusion of hostilities, to set up a memorial in some appropriate place. All donations should be addressed to "Amy Johnson Memorial Fund," c/o Women's Engineering Society, 20 Regent Street, London, S.W. 1, and cheques should be made thus payable.

Scholarships in Electrical Engineering.—Applications, which must be received not later than April 15, 1941, are invited for the Duddell, Swan Memorial, Silvanus Thompson, and William Beedie Esson Scholarships awarded by the Council of the Institution of Electrical Engineers. Inquiries for full particulars and nomination forms (specifically mentioning the name of the Scholarship) should be addressed to the Secretary of the Institution, Savoy Place, London, W.C. 2.

Women's Clubs.—A pamphlet on "Women's Clubs in Reception and Neutral Areas" has been issued by the National Council of Social Service. The need for such clubs is urgent, particularly in districts where there are a considerable number of evacuees. They help to overcome many of the difficulties of evacuation, and are a real necessity for women who have lost their homes and are suffering from strain and anxiety. The pamphlet gives simple and concise advice on how to start a women's club, on suitable premises and equipment, on organization and activities, and on finance. Further information and advice about the promotion and running of women's clubs can be obtained from the Chief Woman Officer, National Council of Social Service, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C. 1.

The Church's Hour.—This "Tract for these Times by Priests of the Diocese of Canterbury" asks why the Church is failing to attract the ordinary man of the present day. "One fundamental reason for the Church's present ineffectiveness is the wrongness of the outlook of so many of its accredited leaders and spokesmen. They appear to consider their first duty to be the preservation of the present social order, for the temporal status of the Church is bound up

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with it. . . . The clearest need of all is that the Church shall begin to proclaim the social implications of the Gospel without fear for its temporal status or its position of privilege."

Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents.—A change of title from The National " Safety First " Association to " The Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents " has recently been approved. In a letter to the Press, the General Secretary states that this change will not affect either the aims or the policy of an organization which, by persistent propaganda during the last twenty-five years, has tried to reduce the incidence of all kinds of accidents, with the result that its slogan of ' Safety First ' became one of the best known and widely used phrases. To-day the public must fearlessly face great risks so that the war effort may be extended. Accidents can interfere with that effort, no less than enemy action. Accident prevention is therefore even more important in war time than in peace. To-day it is a necessity to live dangerously ; but not to die foolishly.

Education in H.M. Forces.—A booklet published by the North-Eastern Regional Committee for Education in H.M. Forces—*NERCEF*—contains a classified list of subjects dealt with in talks, lectures, and films for men and women in the Army, Navy, and Air Force. The subjects cover an amazingly wide field, and there is something for every one's taste—history, geography, travel, literature, art, music, architecture, town planning, psychology, economics, politics, science, astronomy, biography, religion. In a foreword Lord Eustace Percy expresses his gratitude to the twelve education authorities concerned, and to the civilian bodies, for their whole-hearted co-operation in developing the scheme. He says " I think there is a universal feeling that something has already been done and that NERCEF has great opportunities of further usefulness in the future." NERCEF has published another most useful pamphlet containing notes for the guidance of Unit Liaison Officers. If all bodies concerned approached their task in the spirit shown by NERCEF there could be no doubt of the success of the new scheme for education in H.M. Forces.

London County Council.—The Education Committee at their meeting on March 19, 1941, had before them reports of their General Sub-committee. Among the matters included in these reports were the following: (1) The Council has provided a number of organizers and instructors to assist in the development of communal activities for evacuated women in the reception area. So far fifteen local authorities have applied for assistance and requests continue to reach the Council. (2) The Council has decided to allow fire-fighting patrols formed to protect an area including educational premises free use of a room in the school for the purpose ; and to grant to small meetings of local residents convened for instructional purposes, &c., in connexion with local fire-fighting patrols the use of rooms in schools in the neighbourhood on reimbursement of expenditure incurred by the Council for cleaning, &c. (3) In view of the approach of longer hours of daylight and the consequent later use of shelters, classes hitherto held in public air-raid shelters will be transferred to evening institute premises. (4) A Sub-committee of the Education Committee report that details of the scheme of naval scholarships recently introduced by the Government to facilitate the entry of suitable boys into the Navy are being formulated and that, as soon as details are available, they will warmly commend the scheme to the notice of headmasters of Council schools. (5) The Council is making arrangements for the education of Gibraltar child refugees in London. (6) The Council has approved expenditure up to £500 in 1941–42 for music-appreciation concerts for London school children evacuated to the reception area. Last year thirty-eight concerts were given to some 10,000 children.

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OXFORD PAMPHLETS ON WORLD AFFAIRS

By Professor F. A. CAVENAGH, King's College, London

OF the seven latest Oxford pamphlets,* two (37 and 42) may be described as academic, three (36, 39 and 40) as factual, and two (38 and 41) as propaganda. The Nazis have reduced questions of international law to a farce, since they break the law as it suits them. Yet it is noticeable that even they try to preserve a superficial semblance of legality, though this is designed often to hoodwink their victims (as when they send ' technicians ' and ' tourists ' into neutral countries as an advance guard of their armies). Under present conditions it looks as though the Nazis respect the laws of nations only so far as they fear reprisals ; thus one reason they have not used gas so far is that they know they would get it back. Yet, as Prof. Goodhart shows (42), the laws of war " do make a certain difference " ; nor will international law " as recognized by the civilized nations cease to exist merely because one State has deliberately violated its provisions. . . . It is to re-establish the dictates of religion, morality, civilization, and chivalry in a world threatened with barbarism that this war is being fought ". The vitally important aspect of international law that governs treaties is dealt with by Dr. McNair. As it stands, it has three major defects. " (1) It permits a treaty to be dictated by force—whether it be the threat of imminent war or the threat of the continuance of war temporarily suspended by an armistice. (2) It pronounces such a treaty to be legally binding in spite of the duress or coercion which procured its signature and ratification. (3) It affords no means of revising the treaty except with the consent of both parties." Plainly these factors make for recurrence of war ; nor will international law, " if left to itself and unaccompanied by any kind of organization, ever develop satisfactory rules to ensure the just making and revision of treaties and to secure their observance ". Dr. McNair sees hope for the future in a reformed Covenant of the League freed from " connexion with any particular group of treaties ", together with a strengthened Permanent Court of International Justice. In any discussion of peace aims these wider issues must take a first place ; otherwise there will be no escape from the ghastly prospect of this war leading as directly to another as did that of 1914–18. Hence, though these two pamphlets are in a sense academic, they expound problems that affect our lives and those of our children.

The policy of espionage and terrorization that the Nazis have used so successfully abroad started at home. Goebbels has boasted that the Reich was created by propaganda ; but no less effective was Himmler with his secret police. We have all some idea of the numbers, efficiency, brutality, and ubiquity of the Gestapo (its long arm stretches all over the world) ; less commonly realized are two of its features, which are emphasized by Mr. Giles (36). One is that it is extra-judicial : as early as February 1936 it was laid down that " the orders and business of the Secret Police are not subject to review in the administrative courts ". The other is that this violation of the ordinary processes of law is part of the Nazi ideology : " these powers ", says Dr. Best, of the Ministry of the Interior, " derive from the new philosophy alone and do not necessitate a specific legal foundation ". That philosophy has declared, through the chairman of the highest Nazi Party Court, ' right ' is what benefits the German nation, and ' wrong ' is what would be hurtful to it. And ' right ' is fostered by protective custody (which meant first the protection of the individual against lynching, but later the protection of the State) and the concentration camp. Further, secrecy must be observed, partly to stop ' tendencies and intentions ' before they materialize, partly to conceal from the public any opposition to the Party. So there is another peace aim : to free Germany from this abominable tyranny, and the rest of the world from the foreign activities of the Gestapo. And in the meantime let us be on our guard against any approach to Gestapo methods here. Even in war our police must act within the powers legally theirs ; the Council of Civil Liberties has published details of at least one case where these powers have been disgracefully overstepped.

The authors of pamphlets 39 and 40 compress into short space an immense amount of information on their complicated subjects. Prof. Walker explains historically the problems that confront South Africa, and the critical situation that existed at the beginning of the war. Prof. Gibb's task was even harder—to deal in 32 pages with the Arabs, especially as he defines them as " all those for whom the central fact of history is the mission of Mohammed and the memory of the Arab Empire, and who in addition cherish the Arabic tongue and its cultural heritage as their common possession ". The total population of the Arab world is over 30 millions ; its total area is greater than that of the U.S.A. The effects of Western ideas on these tradition-loving people are explained, and particularly the growth of Arab Nationalism. " From end to end the Arab world is in travail. Western agencies, collaborating with new forces within, have transformed or are transforming the Arab lands into modern States ; their peoples, driven from their old moorings, anxiously ask whither they are steering. Their Arab self-consciousness is aroused and expectant, and their intellectual leaders are struggling to define the political and cultural ideals of the Arabs in the modern world." One hopes that the victories of General Wavell may help the Arabs towards a beneficial orientation.

The subject of the blockade has been dealt with in earlier pamphlets (17 and 24) ; in 38, Mr. Clarke brings it up to date. We realize more and more that blockade is the most vital problem of the war : it looks like a race to discover which side can blockade the other first. On both sides the bomber is used to intensify blockade by sea ; since oil is one of the enemy's weakest points, the R.A.F. constantly bombs oil works and stores. Mr. Clarke deals with the supply of various war essentials and foods ; and he shows that the conquered territories increase rather than lighten the Nazis' problems. The whole matter is thus ably summed up : " The blockade is slow in its operation, although its working can be speeded up by bombing. But it does seem that from the summer of 1941 onwards open weaknesses may begin to develop, and that by 1942 the position of the Axis Powers may have been weakened to a sufficient extent to enable the British forces, reinforced at an ever-increasing rate by supplies from the United States and the Dominions, to take the offensive on a decisive scale. A great effort will then be needed by Germany to retain the gains which the armoured divisions have won ; it is the function of the blockade to ensure that such effort will not be forthcoming." That plainly is, and can be no more than, well-informed guesswork ; but it is noticeable that since those words were written the Lease and Lend Bill has gone through. That alone, provided the seas can be kept open, will have the greatest effect on the results of blockade.

Mr. Woodward's pamphlet on the *Origins of the War* is a masterpiece of presentation. It is propaganda in the sense that anything written on this subject must be propaganda ; yet it strikes one as being as unbiased as such an account could possibly be. He wisely deals first with the immediate causes—the sequence of events that led up to the actual

* **Oxford Pamphlets on World Affairs.** No. 36 : The Gestapo. By O. C. GILES. No. 37 : War and Treaties. By A. D. MCNAIR. No. 38 : Britain's Blockade. By R. W. B. CLARKE. No. 39 : South Africa. By E. A. WALKER. No. 40 : The Arabs. By H. A. R. GIBB. No. 41 : The Origins of the War. By E. L. WOODWARD. No. 42 : What Acts of War are Justifiable? By A. L. GOODHART. (3d. net each. Oxford : Clarendon Press.)

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outbreak of war; then in ten eloquent and remarkable pages he treats of the deeper causes. It is these, the real causes, that matter; and it is to remove these that we are fighting. Our peace aims can be best expressed in accordance with their removal. Knowledge of this sort is what people are crying out for; in particular the troops want to be told—and to any one who has the privilege of addressing any unit on this subject, Mr. Woodward's pamphlet will (*crede experto*) be invaluable. His peroration shows the way in which he goes for essentials: "Here, then, we discover the ultimate origins of this war. We are not fighting for the shifting of boundary posts a few score miles to the north or south or east or west. We are not fighting to maintain a rule of privilege or monopoly in our own country. We are fighting for a particular way of life. This way of life allows for change, and looks for betterment; already, through the sacrifice and energy of past generations, it has brought us out from barbarism, and set us towards a reasonable and humane existence. We are fighting against a nation of many millions, strongly compact, brave, crafty, and bound in Dervish-like submission to an opposite way of life. As long as they accept this submission, our good is their evil, and their evil is our good."

WORLD AFFAIRS IN THE CLASS-ROOM

By VERNON MALLINSON

THE Oxford Pamphlets on World Affairs, running at least into forty-two titles, are far too well known to need any further special mention from your reviewer. Yet there is a postscript to be added, refreshingly challenging and stimulating in these days when the school text-book problem promises to be acute.

The publishers rightly argue that since the Ministry of Information has realized the importance of translating some of these into French, German, and Spanish, it is a pity that schools should not benefit too. As I write, I have before me sixteen of these volumes,* in French and German (copies in Spanish may later be available if the demand warrants it), and all priced at the modest sum of sixpence. There is no better value on the market.

For fifth and sixth-form pupils they are just the type of reader that will go down well; we modern language masters are only too aware how jaded the palate becomes after a surfeit of Maupassant, say, and after ploughing through the traditional school text with its inevitable spate of notes, exercises, and commentaries. It cannot be claimed that these pamphlets make 'easy' reading in the ordinary sense of the word. But easy is as easy does, and anything that stimulates and arouses interest because it deals with the actualities of this complex modern existence of ours is bound to claim close and willing attention and application that will have its own reward. The books, too, have the advantage of containing the French and German equivalents of many modern political and economic terms and phrases not met in the ordinary school reader, and frequently all too imperfectly understood.

Only five German titles are at present available, which is a pity, for all provide excellent material for subsequent discussion and essay work. Of the eleven titles in French, my purely arbitrary choice rests with Ensor's *Mein Kampf*, Sir Alfred Zimmern's *L'Avenir de la Civilisation*, Huxley's *Le Problème 'Racial' en Europe*, Gathorne-Hardy's *Les Quatorze Points et le Traité de Versailles*, and Arnold-Forster's *Le Blocus*, 1914–1919.

Why not these ten titles for a start? If the purchase of complete sets of each, for use with the fifth and sixth forms, is not practicable, there is no excuse for not adding one or two copies of each of the sixteen titles to the modern language section of the school library, or for not getting individual pupils to buy at least a title each.

* **(1) Études Internationales: Collection Oxford. (2) Flugschriften zur Welt-politik.** (6d. each. Oxford University Press.)

THE WORLD TO-DAY

By Professor F. A. CAVENAGH, King's College, London

OUR increasing dependence, for our very existence, on the United States and the Dominions, necessitates a better understanding of these countries. Hence it is an admirable scheme to publish booklets* about them on a larger scale than the Oxford pamphlets. If the standard of the first two can be maintained, the series will be of tremendous value. Each in its own way throws a flood of light on all sides of American life. Mr. Brogan's subject is the more general. He deals with the land and the people (both far more varied than one is apt to think), government and politics (with a useful appendix giving verbatim the Constitution and its 21 Amendments), religion, the press, education, literature (with the other arts, including the films), and diversions. His narrative is not only clear and amazingly comprehensive, but also interesting and witty. His account of American education should be of special value to readers of this *Journal*; though sympathetic, it contains a certain amount of debunking, as the following sentences will show: "The United States takes education very seriously, almost too seriously, tacitly assuming that all that is worth learning can be taught—and needs to be taught." "While the picture of American school-life as an ideal democracy is wide of the truth, school does not make such a difference to the future career and social self-satisfaction of the American as it does to that of the Englishman." Or again, "Little is learned when the legal status of an institution is discovered, and to be a college graduate may mean anything, from having received an education in one of the greatest universities in the world to having spent some years in an institution which teaches anything, at any level, from that of a badly-equipped high school upwards." Altogether it is a book that one reads with enjoyment, and re-reads to fix in one's mind the valuable information that it contains. One cannot imagine any way in which this difficult job could have been better done.

Mr. Hitch's subject, though more specialized, is at the moment of more immediate concern. Much as we want to understand America, just now we want even more their ships, planes, and other munitions. On this all-important topic Mr. Hitch writes cautiously. "Many of the estimates of American output which have appeared in the Press have been wildly exaggerated; where they have not been dishonest they have hopelessly confused the potential and the actual." Although American industry is eminently adaptable and can build new plant with surprising rapidity, yet it has not so far been designed to turn out large quantities of, *e.g.* aeroplanes and heavy tanks and large guns. It will take one to two years before such things can be made on mass-production lines. As for a declaration of war by the United States, Mr. Hitch believes that later on (say in 1942) it might help, but that "in the short run it could not help the Allies very much, and might conceivably weaken them," since "the bottleneck is American production rather than Allied cash. . . . And there is the certainty that the equipment of an army and air force for service in the future would have the immediate effect of reducing deliveries of planes and other war materials to the Allies". Clear statements like that should do away with a good deal of rubbish that is talked (though less than formerly) about America's attitude to the war.

Both these little books are well printed and illustrated. They are suitable alike for the general reader (and anybody, however well informed, could learn from them), and for undergraduates and the older pupils in secondary schools.

* **The World To-day.**

1. U.S.A.: an Outline of the Country, its People and Institutions. By Prof. D. W. BROGAN.

2. America's Economic Strength. By C. J. HITCH. (2s. 6d. net each. Oxford University Press.)

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CONQUERING ILLITERACY

By E. GREEN

THIS* is a notable and unique addition to the literature of a most important subject. In this country, thanks to the popular education of the last seventy years, it is very rare to find anyone who can neither read nor write, but in some other countries there is a wide field for the educationist to discover. In the book under notice we are made aware of this, and of the author's successful effort in several countries. In his introductory chapter he discusses the whole subject and indicates the attitude of different people towards it. " Mr. Gandhi, for example, although working for literacy, expresses his fears that reading in India may become a substitute for meditation, in which India stands above all other people. He sharply distinguishes between culture and literacy, pointing out that such great Indian leaders as Emperor Akbar and Shivaji were highly cultured, although they could not write their own names."

For the most part, however, the weight of evidence is altogether in favour of cultivating literacy everywhere. To the objection that literacy alone is not enough, the author agrees, but he points out that " when we make them (the people) literate we put in their hands the dipper with which they can drink from the reservoirs of knowledge. Experience has convinced us that they are thirsty enough to drink ".

Then, the author points out that " one of the major theses of this book is that there is a way to conduct a literacy campaign so that it will constitute a perfect project in building the spirit of unselfish service—the spirit which the world needs. This is done by calling forth voluntary teaching, and by stimulating the spirit of love and mutual aid ".

In explaining his system Dr. Laubach insists that methods suitable for children will not do when dealing with adults. He says: " In the first place an illiterate adult knows a great deal more than a child of six knows. Our experience indicates that the average adult has a clear idea of the meaning of from five to ten thousand words, while a child of six may use only that many hundred words ". Speaking of actual lessons, the author says: " The subject matter of a lesson must not only remain within the vocabulary of the adult, and consist of grown-up material. The lesson must also be built so that the adult student can take the lead as soon as possible, for he does not like to follow long. There must be the fewest possible words on the part of the teacher and the greatest possible activity on the part of the student. . . . the highest art of the teacher is to keep out of the student's way, neither pushing nor retarding him ".

The field of Dr. Laubach's activity has been chiefly in the Phillipines, Southern Asia, India, and East Africa, and the wonderful results he records will be a revelation to many. These wide and rapid results are no doubt to some extent due to the method of making every student also a teacher. In this connexion the author says: " It was a thrilling experience while at the American University in Beirut to come into contact with a hundred students from Irak and Persia, all of them impatient to return and teach illiterates in their fascinating young-old countries, now largely in the control of men with youthful minds ".

A rather surprising fact about the countries visited is the scarcity of books for the teeming populations. " Ten million Swahili people in 1923 had a library of five books which were truly their own ! Of these, only two had been written by their own race. Almost all of the other languages of Africa below the Sahara are similarly impoverished in all excepting school texts and religious books. But for the missions, they would have had practically nothing ".

I have not entered into the technicalities of the doctor's methods, but perhaps I have said sufficient to encourage a wider reading of a really important book.

* **Toward a Literate World.** By FRANK C. LUNBACH. (7s. 6d. net. Lutterworth Press).

Biography

A Great Experiment : An Autobiography

By VISCOUNT CECIL (LORD ROBERT CECIL). (16s. net. Cape.)

This is at once the story of the League of Nations and an autobiography. Viscount Cecil in his Conclusions counters the pacifist argument that it is futile to try to secure peace through war by showing that in the last resort force is the only way to stop aggression. Armed isolation, he says, can be regarded only as a particularly fatal form of national suicide. " The truth is that the British Empire is and must remain part of the general community of nations. It cannot reject the responsibilities of that position, neither can it discharge them unaided." This truth was long obscured by British command of the seas, but our growing dependence upon foreign trade, and the development of submarine and air warfare, have enormously increased our vulnerability. The federation of the democracies on the lines proposed in *Union Now* would, he argues, at once lead to the formation of a counter-group of nations. We should, he thinks, while keeping the federation of mankind in our minds as the ultimate goal, proceed step by step. The first step should be a Pan-European Federation within the framework of the League and open to all European members who were prepared to use all their strength to resist international aggression. Definite proposals to this end are included in an appendix. Of these, perhaps the most important is the suggestion that an international air force should be established to keep the peace. It will be remembered that this suggestion has been anticipated by Mr. H. G. Wells in one of his stories.

The earlier part of the book contains an account of Lord Robert Cecil's childhood and of his early years at the Bar and in the political arena. There are many interesting illustrations, including portraits of Nansen, Briand, Benes, and the author and his wife. There are three appendices and a good index.

Education

Advisory Bodies : a Study of their Uses in relation to Central Government, 1919–1939

Edited by R. V. VERNON and Dr. N. MANSERGH. (18s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

This is an account of a piece of research work carried out by the Oxford University Politics Research Group. The chairman of the Group, Sir Arthur Salter, in a preface to the report, says, " The proper use of advisory bodies is the right answer of representative democracy to the challenge of the Corporate State." The extended use of such bodies, he thinks, should increase and not diminish the effective participation of democracy in government.

The editors of the report are Mr. R. V. Vernon and Dr. N. Mansergh. Other contributors are Dr. A. J. Brown, Mr. R. W. Baldwin, Mr. John Graves, Mr. R. N. Spann, Mr. A. V. S. Lochhead, Mr. A. L. Fleet, Mr. J. Taylor, Mr. A. M. Mackintosh. A general survey of the problem by Mr. Vernon is followed by a detailed account of the use of advisory bodies by various departments of State—the Treasury, the Board of Trade, the Board of Education, the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Labour, and the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. The volume has a special interest for educationists, since in this country it is in the sphere of education that advisory bodies have had their most striking success, and some of the reports of the committees of the Board of Education have had the success of ' best sellers '. The Ministry of Health has had 120 committees in twenty years, but its record is nevertheless disappointing. That of the Ministry of Agriculture is little better. The appointment of an Advisory Committee for Higher Agricultural Education was welcomed, but the activities of this committee have unfortunately been interrupted by the war.

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As Mr. Vernon says in his summary, no precise rule can be set down for the use of advisory bodies, but it is illuminating to examine the methods which have hitherto been employed. "The consideration of outside opinion is a means of effecting a continuous penetration of the machinery of government by the spirit of democracy and thereby making of it something more than a piece of machinery—a vital organism."

The Silent Teacher

By M. ELSON. Book 1: for Pupils of 8–10 Years. Book 2: for Pupils of 10–12 Years. Book 3: for Pupils of 12–14 Years or for Scholarship Pupils. (1s. 2d. each. Collins.)

The Silent Teacher is described "as the ideal book for the child who works alone." At this time, when so many children are either not attending school, or attending it only for brief and broken periods, the book should serve a valuable purpose. Each of the three books in the series contains daily assignments in English, Arithmetic, Geography, Writing, &c., graded according to the age of the pupils, and covering a full year's work. At the end of each book there are answers which the pupil is advised not to consult prematurely. The books are admirably designed for their special purpose. We believe that there has already been a considerable demand for them from teachers. We hope that teachers will resist the temptation to use *The Silent Reader* as a text-book, or for the purpose of saving themselves the trouble of doing their own work.

English

Practice in English

By A. K. BOYD and A. R. MOON. (2s. 6d. Longmans.)

This is a very useful piece of work by two experienced teachers. The aim of the book is to "help pupils to get better effects in their writing," and to further this purpose the authors have contrived numerous exercises designed to mitigate, if not cure, the general inaccuracy and slovenliness of school composition. The emphasis throughout is constructive, and much more importance is attached to remedial work than to negative criticism. In spite of the wide range of the book which makes it suitable for secondary schools and training colleges, the selective skill of the authors has kept the matter within a reasonable compass. There is certainly a place for this book even in an overcrowded market.

Précis Exercises: for Matriculation, School Certificate and Similar Examinations

By P. V. COHN. (1s. 2d. University Tutorial Press.)

This book consists of fifty-one passages for practice in précis-writing. The selection is wide and varied, and includes extracts from contemporary writers.

Approach to Poetry

By J. F. DANBY. (3s. Heinemann.)

This is a book which every teacher would do well to read. The author begins by pointing out that for the teacher to appreciate a poem is one thing; to get the pupil to appreciate it is another, and this is the sole need of the poetry lesson. The pupil's appreciation is not to be gained by the teacher's enthusiasm or gush. The poem must be enjoyed by the pupil, and this enjoyment can be created only by a teacher who is able to read the poet's words aloud much as the poet himself would have spoken them.

> "A perfect judge will read each work of wit
> With the same spirit that its author writ."

There is a misprint in Matthew Arnold's poem on p. 98: "*Ah!* would that I did too", not "*And*"; and the author's description of the metre of Meredith's *Love in the Valley* as "perversely elaborate" is unkind. Meredith is often perverse, but in this poem both in diction and in metre he achieves a triumph.

The author does well to direct the teacher's attention to to what Dr. I. A. Richards has said in his *Practical Criticism*, and his device of using the dictionary translation of a poem judiciously, and with a due sense of its humorous effect, is doubtless one of the best ways of arriving at its full meaning. At the same time it may be doubted whether anything but a laugh can be gained by translating "Of his bones is coral made" into: "The hard calcareous substance which comprises his skeleton has become the calcareous structure secreted by certain polyps in masses at the bottom of the sea." The book is divided into three sections—The Study of Poetry, The Doing and Saying of Poems, and The Study of Poems, and the author has much to say that teachers will find helpful in what is one of the most difficult of their tasks.

Modern Verse, 1900–1940

Chosen by PHYLLIS M. JONES. (The World's Classics.) (2s. 6d. net. Humphrey Milford: Oxford University Press.)

This volume consists of passages of modern verse from 1900 to 1940, and is part of the five-volume anthology of English Verse in the World's Classics' series. The passages have been selected with care and judgment, and the collection is admirably representative of English poetry of the last forty years. There are indexes of authors and first lines.

Poems for Modern Youth

Selected by E. W. PARKER. (Heritage of Literature Series.) (3s. Longmans.)

This is a re-issue of two anthologies—*The Poets' Way*, and *The Poets' Harvest*—bound together in one volume. Both these anthologies have already enjoyed some success, and the present volume provides a rich and well-organized selection of poems ranging from Chaucer to Stephen Spender.

(*Continued on page 154*)

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History

British Foreign Policy since Versailles

By W. N. MEDLICOTT. (8s. 6d. net. Methuen.)

It is unlikely that a better book than this could have been written so soon after the chain of events and policies that found their climax in September 1939.

The narrative is packed with incidents, yet Mr. Medlicott contrives to make of it a swiftly moving and very readable analysis. His judgments are shrewd, severe, and outspoken ; and if he utters them in terms of intellectual rather than of moral criticism, he is at least scrupulous in so doing, for the function of the historian is fulfilled if he explains why the particular man did a particular thing in the given circumstances.

This book shares with Mr. Wickham Steed and others the view that in the first ten years of the League era British policy was loth to put the League first among ' national interests ', and that to this extent the *débâcles* of 1933 and 1935–6 were to be foreseen. His final section, on the Polish crisis that heralded the war, is masterly in its restraint. But he does not go fully into the fascinating mystery of what the German offer to Poland in March 1939 actually was. This indeed will be one of the major revelations that research after the war may hope to give us. For Ribbentrop's minute on his interview with Count Lipski on March 26, not mentioned by Mr. Medlicott (see German White Book No. 2, *Dokumente zur Vorgeschichte des Krieges*, December 1939, p. 133, No. 208), is so circumstantial that it either throws a new light on the transaction or is a manufactured interpolation.

Sea-Power and Empire

By Prof. F. J. C. HEARNSHAW. (10s. 6d. net. Harrap.)

Prof. Hearnshaw here embodies the material of his 1939 lectures in the University of London. The result is a complete outline survey of the history of British sea-power from the earliest times, prefaced by an analysis of ancient and medieval empires that places the story in perspective, and supplemented by an account of the new problems that followed the end of the Great War.

The book is especially valuable to the student since there was no comparable survey in the same compass available before. It is tightly packed with information, among which the pungent judgments stand out like mountain peaks. The final section, on the future, raises a number of questions which the author forbears to answer categorically, though he leaves the reader in no doubt of his personal answer, namely that the British Navy must be preserved " in that position of beneficent power which it possessed in 1588, in 1713, in 1815, and in 1918 ", as the strong arm of a Commonwealth that is the best safeguard against " the still viler tyrannies of the modern dictators ".

1. The Democratic Ideal in France and England

By Dr. D. THOMSON.

2. Political Propaganda

By Prof. F. C. BARTLETT.

3. Problems of the Baltic

By Dr. W. F. REDDAWAY (Current Problems). (3s. 6d. net each. Cambridge University Press.)

This new series will take its place alongside the ' Discussion Books ' of the House of Nelson. Those who remember Dr. Thomson's sparkling book on *Personality in Politics* in the latter series will be eager to read his *Democratic Ideal in France and England* now offered. Dr. Bartlett's *Political Propaganda* is a handbook of 150 pages, full of factual illustrations, and invaluable for its courageous handling of the root-question in all these discussions of propaganda, namely, " Shall we employ propaganda for Democracy ? " Mr. Reddaway's *Problems of the Baltic* will make a very useful companion work, on the political and economic side, to Sir Ernest Simon's *The Smaller Democracies* (published by Gollancz in 1939).

Miscellany

Physical Education for India

By D. S. BORKER. (5s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

This little book is carefully written and compiled and may be of some use to managers of higher grade institutions in India who wish to introduce themselves to the subject of Physical Education. For those who desire to go farther there is an interesting bibliography in one of the Appendices. For its brief compass of a hundred odd pages, the present work attempts too much to be useful as a text-book in any branch of the subject—History, Theory, Athletics, Games, and so forth. It is a fair criticism that the author makes no attempt to adapt Western practice to Eastern conditions nor to deal with the systems of Physical Training which have been for long established in the country. This may follow. Meantime Mr. Borker has made a start.

Puffin Picture Books

Edited by N. CARRINGTON. No. 1 : War on Land. No. 2 : War at Sea. By J. HOLLAND. No. 3 : War in the Air. No. 4 : On the Farm. By J. GARDNER. (6d. each. Penguin Books.)

The enterprising publishers, Penguin Books Limited, have issued a junior series under the attractive title of *Puffin Picture Books*, and the first four books live up to the ' Penguin ' standard of giving good value for a modest price. They are each 32 pages long, if one includes the paper cover, and nearly every page is alive with colour. The subjects chosen are those in which the child of 1941 (let us admit it) has a natural interest, and the method is to reduce to the simplest terms of picture and language the complicated machinery of warfare and of the farm war-time subjects that go strangely hand in hand. Some of the lithographed drawings, especially the full-page ones, are very effective—a little crude perhaps, but full of vigour. Altogether they are a lively set of books for which lively children will find good use and which the history teacher should not despise.

The Nation's Larder and the Housewife's Part Therein : a Set of Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain in April, May, and June, 1940

By Prof. J. C. DRUMMOND, Maj.-Gen. Sir ROBERT MCGARRISON, Sir JOHN ORR, Sir FREDERICK KEEBLE, Dr. L. H. LAMPITT, Prof. V. H. MOTTRAM, Dr. J. C. SPENCE. (2s. 6d. Bell.)

This is a book of first-class importance. It consists of a series of seven lectures delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain, with a preface by Sir William Bragg, a commendatory letter from the Minister of Food, and a supplement by Dr. Franklin Kidd. The opening lecture is by Prof. Drummond. His thesis is " Ensure a basic intake of essential protective foods for your population, and after that one need have few cares as to what is eaten ". " A peasant diet "—wholemeal bread, plenty of vegetables and potatoes and cheese or milk—provides all the essentials for sound nutrition. He illustrates this thesis by reference to the " Oslo Breakfast ", an article on which appeared in *The Journal of Education* for September, 1939, and shows that the present German rations are based on the same principle. Sir Robert McGarrison deals with the medical aspects of food, and by another path arrives at the same conclusion. Sir John Orr discusses our national food requirements and the changes which should take place in our ordinary diet. Sir Frederick Keeble deals with the development of home production, and Dr. Lampitt with economy in the use of food and fuel. Prof. Mottram tells us clearly and simply how we can make our diet sound from the point of view of modern dietetics. Dr. Spence discusses the feeding of children, and Dr. Kidd the preservation of food. It is impossible to over-emphasize the importance of this book. It should be read by every teacher and by every housewife.

(Continued on page 156)

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This book continues the method of its predecessor (**The First German Course, 2s. 9d.**). The vocabulary is based on the Deutsche Akademie frequency list, grammar covered is that required for university entrance, and the revisional sentences included are taken from examination papers. The book is illustrated with line drawings. **4s. 6d.**

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Modern Languages

Conseils à un Jeune Français partant pour l'Angleterre, suivi d'une Lettre à une Jeune Femme de Qualité partant pour Londres au Moment de la "Saison" et de Notes pour un Homme d'État Français qui traverse pour la première Fois la Manche.
By A. MAUROIS. Edited by G. C. ANDREWS. (1s. 6d. Macmillan.)

André Maurois needs no introduction to English students. His knowledge of English is so complete that it colours his French style. This book is a counterpart of Prof. Boillot's *Tu viens en Angleterre*. It would make a good reader for a fifth or sixth form—his original remarks make us feel that he likes the English, and his book will create mutual understanding between the two nations. His chapters on compromise, clothes, justice, and sentimentality will appeal to all. His *Colonel Bramble* was one of the great successes among war books of 1914–18.

1. Dix Contes
By J. DOUCET. Edited by J. MATRAT.

2. Les Trois Petits Éclaireurs, by P. Hellin, and En Route, vers le Sud, by M. Clairval.
Edited by A. LEE and J. MATRAT. (The London Modern Language Series.)
(1s. 3d. each. University of London Press.)

The general editor of this series, Mr. P. G. Wilson, is well known, and these ten stories would be enjoyed by a fourth or fifth form. The second book contains two longer tales for junior forms.

Le Secret de l'Ile D'Acier
By G. G. TOUDOUZE. Edited by ANNIE OWEN. (Paper, 10d. Limp Cloth, 1s. 2d. Oxford University Press.)

Messrs. Gurney and Scott's Rapid Reading Texts are now well known. Not all teachers appreciate an arranged text but prefer French as French authors write it. This story is one of adventure and will be enjoyed by all boys and by some girls.

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Science

Higher School Certificate Practical Physics

By E. ARMITAGE. (6s. Murray.)

A useful collection of somewhat orthodox experiments for post-certificate pupils. All the apparatus required would be found in any school laboratory. The directions given are clear and adequate.

Environment and Heredity

By Dr. OLIVE D. MAGUINNESS. (Discussion Books.) (2s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

During the last fifty years research has accumulated many facts—not yet as well known as they should be—relevant to the formation of an enlightened and rational education policy. It is becoming possible, for instance, to give tentative answers to questions such as: how far are intelligence and character inherited? how far can they be modified by environment? can it be assumed that members of one class are superior in ability to those of another? are characteristics acquired by parents transmitted to their offspring? Clearly, the answer to such questions will help to shape one's views—*inter alia* on the criteria that should be applied when selecting pupils for the different kinds of schools that exist.

In this excellent little book, Dr. Maguinness gives in simple and readable form the results of biological and psychological research relevant to the problems of heredity, especially in their educational aspect. She discusses and explains modern views on evolution, mendelism, the inheritance of acquired characters, the inheritance of mental ability, the dependence of intelligence on social class, &c. Even experts would find profit and pleasure in her book, while laymen will find no unnecessary technicalities to repel and defeat them.

Inorganic and Theoretical Chemistry

By Dr. F. SHERWOOD TAYLOR. Fifth Edition. (12s. 6d. Heinemann.)

The fifth edition of this standard text-book, first published in 1931, now appears. It retains its attractive waterproof binding, its clear printing, and gives an excellent presentation of the facts and principles needed for a post-matriculation course in theoretical and inorganic Chemistry.

The few teachers of chemistry in this country who have not examined this outstanding work should secure a copy immediately. Few text-books of this type are written so carefully and clearly, few are so free from error and antiquated matter.

Readers who are familiar with the earlier editions will find but few alterations. Short notes are given on argentic fluoride, nitrogen trioxide, sulphur tetroxide, the carbonyls, and the separation of the platinum metals. The value of the book is increased by the inclusion of new photographs and diagrams, but the reviewer was disappointed to find figures 26 and 27 retained—although they always provide excellent exercises for pupils to redraw. The diag ams of the plant; used in the manufacture of bleaching powder, sodium hydroxide, and sulphuric acid are particularly useful. Revisions of the accounts for the manufacture of cement, hydrogen peroxide, and other substances have also been made, so that this excellent book will continue to be an invaluable help to many more of this country's chemists of the future.

Chemistry in the Service of Man

By Prof. A. FINDLAY. Fifth Edition. (8s. 6d. net. Longmans.) Jn

This well-known book, now in its fifth edition, has for several years been in demand as a school prize and can be found in many school and public libraries. Most teachers of chemistry must be familiar with its sound arrangement of reliable and readable material, its unusual and helpful diagrams and photographs, and its interesting accounts of industrial processes. Readers of the earlier editions will find in this latest edition numerous alterations, particularly in the descriptions of modern technical and medical chemistry. Authoritative accounts of the following processes might be mentioned here: the manufacture of fertilizers, plastics, rayon, rubber, the extraction of sulphur, and the hydrogenation of coal.

Additions or alterations have been made to the descriptions of radio-activity, inert gases, glass, clay, and synthetic chemistry. The lists of books for further reading formerly given at the end of each chapter have been omitted.

The book, first published in 1916, is based on a series of lectures delivered during the 1914–1918 war, when our country "failed to recognize the intimate and vital dependence of our social and national prosperity on a knowledge and appreciation of the facts and principles of science and not least of chemistry, and on their application in industry". As this war proceeds it will be interesting to see to what extent this statement remains true.

HOWELL'S SCHOOL, LLANDAFF

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Application forms and particulars may be obtained from the Clerk to the Governors, T.P. Prichard, Solicitor, 3 Edward Terrace, Cardiff, and must be returned to him not later than May 10, 1941.

CLIFTON COLLEGE

BRISTOL

The following Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded on the results of the Examination to be held on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, June 3, 4, and 5.

1. In addition to the ten Scholarships announced for award in 1940, of the value of £100, £80, £60, and £40 a year, six new Scholarships have been founded; two of the value of £100, two of the value of £80, and two of the value of £60 a year.
2. Exhibitions of £25 a year.
3. One Scholarship for Music of the value of £70 a year, with free tuition in Music.
4. One John Percival Scholarship of the value of from £25 to £100 a year.
5. One Edgar Gollin Memorial Scholarship of the value of £25 a year, with a preference for the son of an Old Cliftonian.
6. One W. F. Phillips Scholarship of the value of £20 a year.
7. One Old Cliftonian Scholarship of the value of £35 a year for the son of an Old Cliftonian.
8. One Preparatory School Scholarship of the value of £25 a year for a member of the Preparatory School between the ages of 13 and 14, or a boy under 14 in the Upper School who was formerly a member of the Preparatory School.

Candidates must be under 14 on June 1, 1941. Boys who are already in the School may compete.

Candidates will take the examination on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, June 3, 4, and 5.

Particulars of the place and conditions of the examination from the BURSAR, Clifton College, Bristol.

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SCHOLARSHIPS

MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES,

FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

WESTFIELD COLLEGE
(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

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Rt. Hon. Viscount CALDECOTE, C.B.E.

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Mrs. J. L. STOCKS, B.Sc. (Econ.)

RESIDENTIAL College for 150 women which prepares for the Degrees of the University of London. Non-resident Students are also admitted. At the Scholarship Examination to be held in February, 1941, SCHOLARSHIPS from £100 to £30 will be awarded for CLASSICS, GERMAN, FRENCH, ENGLISH, HISTORY, BOTANY and MATHEMATICS.

Fees.—Residence, £90 a year. Tuition from 38 guineas a year.

For further particulars apply to:

The Registrar,
WESTFIELD COLLEGE,
(University of London)
at ST. PETER'S HALL, OXFORD

ALDENHAM SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys under 14 on May 1, on the results of an examination toward the end of May:

(*a*) An ALFRED SMITH SCHOLARSHIP of £80 a year.

(*b*) Three JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS, of £60 to £40 a year.

(*c*) Two or more EXHIBITIONS of about £30 a year.

INTERNAL SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys already in the School:

(*a*) Two SENIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 a year, open to boys not less than 15 and not more than 17 on May 1.

(*b*) Two JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 to £30 a year, open to all boys in the School.

LEAVING EXHIBITIONS. About three each year, from £80 downward, tenable for three years or more at the Universities.

The School Scholarships are tenable for the duration of the holder's school career.

The School Fees are £115 a year, with a Consolidated Fee of £5 a term to cover all necessary extras.

Further particulars may be had from the HEADMASTER, ALDENHAM SCHOOL, ELSTREE, HERTS.

ABBOTSHOLME SCHOOL,
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Well removed from military objectives and industrial targets.

SCHOLARSHIP TESTS. Junior and Senior School. 19th, 22nd May, 1941. Age limits under 14 and over 8 on September 30, 1941. Five Scholarships offered of values up to 100 Guineas—£75, £60, £30, £30.

BEAUMONT COLLEGE

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS are awarded in March and June. Candidates must have taken previously the March or June Common Entrance Examination. A further Examination will be held at the College on March 28 and June 27. For further particulars apply the RECTOR, Beaumont College, Old Windsor, Berks.

BERKHAMSTED SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination will be held in June, 1941, for three Entrance Scholarships of the value of £60, and four or more Exhibitions of less amount.

Candidates must be under the age of 14 on June 1 immediately before the examination. The age of candidates will be taken into consideration in the examination.

Entries should be received by May 24. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

BLUNDELL'S SCHOOL

ONE Scholarship of £100, four of £50, six Exhibitions of £30, one "Empire Scholarship" of £30. Classics, Mathematics and Special Subjects. Examination, June 2.

Inclusive fees (boarders) £140, particulars from HEADMASTER, Blundell's School, Tiverton.

BRIGHTON COLLEGE

AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

A number of Gill Memorial Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered each June to sons of Officers or Ex-Officers in H.M. Army. The highest of these awards will amount to half the total fees.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in each July, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

CHARTERHOUSE SCHOLARSHIPS, 1941

AN Examination will be held on June 3, 4, and 5 at Charterhouse, Godalming, and at Charterhouse, London, E.C. (circumstances permitting). The Scholarships, of which not less than ten will be awarded if duly qualified candidates present themselves, are of the value of £91 10s. per annum, and are open to boys between 12 and 14 on July 15 next after the examination. Application for details and form of entry should reach the SECRETARY, Charterhouse, Godalming, before May 26.

CHARD SCHOOL,
SOMERSET

OFFERS for competition in June a number of Open Scholarships in addition to one open only to boys born in the County of Somerset. Particulars from the HEADMASTER.

CITY OF LONDON SCHOOL
CORPORATION OF LONDON

SCHOLARSHIPS

AT least seven CORPORATION SCHOLARSHIPS, value £31 10s. per annum, will be open for competition in May next. Open to all boys of good character, under 14 years of age, whether in the School or not, and tenable for School life.

One Sir Albert David SASSOON ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIP, tenable for four years at the School, of the value of £10, increasing to £35 per annum, is open to all Candidates, whether in the School or not who are under the age of 13 years on the first day of June, in which the examination is held.

Full particulars may be obtained upon application from the Secretary, City of London School, c/o Marlborough College, Wilts.

ROACH.

CRANBROOK SCHOOL, KENT

Founded 1520

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

THE Scholarship Examination will be held on May 22 and 23, 1941; Entries up to May 12. Age limit 14½ on June 30. Six Scholarships, of £75, £50 (3) and £40 (2), together with two Exhibitions and two Bursaries, are offered annually. Total fees, with consolidated charge for extras, £103 10s. a year.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

CULFORD SCHOOL,
BURY ST. EDMUNDS

AN Examination for Scholarships will be held in May, 1941. Five Scholarships will be offered (value £70–£30). Particulars and Entry Form from the HEADMASTER.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

THE DOWNS SCHOOL, SEAFORD,
ST. IVES, CORNWALL

SIX Entrance Scholarships, a Music and an Art Scholarship value £30–£100 per annum will be awarded on the result of an examination to be held in May, 1941. Particulars from the HEADMISTRESS.

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SCHOLARSHIPS

MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES,

FELLOWSHIPS. EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER, Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

THE INSTITUTION OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERS

DUDDELL SCHOLARSHIP

THE above Scholarship is of the value of £150 per annum and is tenable for three years. It is open to British subjects under 19 years of age on July 1, 1941, who have passed the Matriculation Examination of a British University or an examination exempting from matriculation and who wish to take up a whole-time day-course in Electrical Engineering.

Each candidate must be nominated by a Corporate Member of The Institution of Electrical Engineers.

Applications, mentioning "Duddell Scholarship," for particulars and nomination forms (which must be returned not later than April 15, 1941) should be addressed to the Secretary of The Institution, Savoy Place, London, W.C. 2.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY

Carlyon Bay, South Cornwall

THREE Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

TWELVE to Fourteen King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

TWO Milner Memorial Scholarships value £100 per annum for five years, will be offered in June. The Milner Scholarship is open to sons of Colonial Civil Servants and others.

For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

KING'S SCHOOL, ROCHESTER

EXAMINATIONS for the award of King's Scholarships and Minor Scholarships will be held on June 23 and 24. These are in addition to reduction in Tuition Fees for brothers and for sons of clergy. Prospectus and particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER, King's School, Rochester, at Taunton School, Taunton.

KING WILLIAM'S COLLEGE

ISLE OF MAN

SCHOLARSHIP Examination in May. Closing day for entries, May 1. The examination may take place at candidate's School. Ten Scholarships will be offered in 1941, in value from £100 to £50 a year. Also several minor scholarships not exceeding £40 a year available. For particulars apply to the PRINCIPAL, King William's College, Isle of Man.

LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

(*a*) Six SCHOLARSHIPS (at least), Classical and Modern, varying from £100 to £50 per annum, according to merit and needs.

(*b*) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

LIVERPOOL COLLEGE FOR GIRLS

Huyton, near Liverpool

WITH A JUNIOR BRANCH AT BLACKWELL, NEAR BOWNESS, AND A SENIOR BRANCH AT RYDAL HALL, NEAR AMBLESIDE.

AN Entrance Scholarship Examination (Scholarships £50, Exhibitions £30) will take place in May, 1941. Preference given to candidates under 14 years of age. Applications to the HEADMISTRESS before May 1st. Particulars of other bursaries sent on application. Three closed Scholarships to the University, one available each year.

THE LEYS SCHOOL, CAMBRIDGE

Temporarily removed to

THE ATHOLL PALACE HOTEL,

PITLOCHRY, PERTHSHIRE

THREE or four Open Foundation Scholarships of £100 a year, and six other Scholarships and Exhibitions of between £25 and £75 a year will be awarded in June, 1941, if suitable candidates of sufficient merit present themselves. Candidates must be under 14 on January 1, 1941. A large choice of subjects in the Final Examination is available, including Science, German, and Music. Scholarships and Exhibitions may in certain cases be increased by such an amount as the circumstances of the Scholar may require. Full particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER.

The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

MALVERN COLLEGE

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held early in March, 1942. Up to five Scholarships of £100 and three or more of £50. A number of Exhibitions and Bursarships also will be offered to boys of all-round ability.

Candidates may take the Examination at their Preparatory Schools or at Malvern.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEADMASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in September.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS, M.A. (Cantab.).

MAGDALEN COLLEGE SCHOOL, OXFORD

AN Examination will be held on Monday and Tuesday, June 9 and 10, for the award of Two School Exhibitions, of £25 and £20, and one or more House Exhibitions of £20, tenable with the former. Candidates must be under 15 years of age on the day of examination. For particulars apply to the MASTER.

MERCHANT TAYLORS' SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships, for boys under 14 years of age, is held twice a year.

Full particulars and Entrance Forms may be obtained from the HEADMASTER'S SECRETARY, Merchant Taylors' School, Sandy Lodge, Northwood, Middlesex.

OUNDLE SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June. For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

ST. EDWARD'S SCHOOL

A Scholarship Examination will be held in the last week of May, 1941. Scholarships are two each of £100, £70, and £50, and several Exhibitions of £30. There are also Clerical and Service Bursaries. Further information may be obtained from the BURSAR, St. Edward's School, Oxford.

SEDBERGH SCHOOL

THE Examination for Ten Entrance Scholarships and Exhibitions, of the annual value of £100 to £40, will be held in May or June, in London and Sedbergh. Candidates must be under 14 years of age on January 1.

For further information apply to the HEADMASTER, Sedbergh School, Yorkshire.

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SCHOLARSHIPS

MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES, FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

SHREWSBURY SCHOOL

THE Scholarship Examination, 1941, will be held at Shrewsbury on May 27, 28, and 29.

A Preliminary Examination will take place in the previous week at Candidates' own Schools, only selected boys being then summoned to Shrewsbury for a Final Examination.

Eleven Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered, including two of £100, two of £80, one of £60, an Arthur Bailey Scholarship of £60 (for the son of an Officer in the O.B.L.I., or, in default, of a Regular Officer), the T. E. Pickering Scholarship of £35; two to four Exhibitions of £40 or £30 (according to merit); an Exhibition for Music of £30. In special cases financial assistance somewhat above the titular value may be given. Candidates to be under 14 on April 1, 1941. Full information on application to the BURSAR.

STOWE

TEN Scholarships and four Bursaries are offered every summer to boys under 14 on May 1. Examination, 1941: June 4–6. Particulars from the HEADMASTER, Stowe School, Buckingham.

TONBRIDGE SCHOOL

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

A MONTHLY RECORD AND REVIEW
with which is incorporated
THE SCHOOL WORLD

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

IT is well that we should know betimes what the fantastic New Order of the Nazis is likely to mean in the schools of those countries which, through force or persuasion, come within its scope. The newspapers have done good service recently in giving us particulars of what is happening in Norway. There, even small children have passionately gone on strike rather than submit to Nazi teaching or obey Nazi orders in their education. Thus orders were issued in Oslo that school staffs were to take their pupils to a Hitler Jugend exhibition. "The pupils of the Möllergarten elementary school were lined up in the playground to march to the exhibition. As soon as they got outside they broke ranks and made for the centre of the city. There they gathered again outside the offices of the quisling paper *Fritt Folk* and shouted 'Long live the King!' and 'Down with Quisling!' They were scattered by the police, but soon afterwards they demonstrated again outside the German headquarters." (*Manchester Guardian*, March 15.) This and similar demonstrations seem to have disturbed even the obtuse Nazi mind, and concessions had to be made to still the storm and to get the schools functioning again. Such are the apostles of a new culture and the heralds of a regenerated earth. One can almost be grateful to them for showing so plainly how little life would be worth living if they were to get their way.

Hitler's New Order in School.

THE Times did a real service recently in publishing two striking articles by Mr. Kenneth Lindsay, M.P., describing the rapid and very significant development that has taken place in war-time of an intricate system of 'regional' government in England. It will be remembered that, as part of the system of civil defence devised by the Ministry of Home Security, Great Britain was divided into twelve 'regions', each with a Regional Commissioner at its head. It was contemplated that, if a temporary breakdown of communication with London should occur in any area as the result of enemy action, the Commissioner would at once assume all governmental powers over that area with authority to take whatever action the emergency might demand. Mr. Lindsay tells the truly exciting story of the way in which, around the nuclei thus created, there have grown up what he justly describes as "miniature Whitehalls". Around each Commissioner's office there is now an intricate network of co-operating authorities, both local and central. Every Government Department except the Boards of Trade, Education, and Agriculture, has now its regional office working in close conjunction with the Commissioner. Prominent among them, as we should expect, are the Ministries of Health and Reconstruction. We imagine that the divisional organization of the Board of Education inspectorate would also find itself fitting somehow into this novel picture.

Regional Government.

EXPERIENCE so impressive as this must leave its permanent mark. Mr. Lindsay discusses the possibilities in his second article, and *The Times* itself adds further emphasis in a well-considered editorial. One is almost bewildered by the thought of the possibilities that are opened up. We are familiar enough in England both with the phenomenon of new growth and organization in the local areas necessitating reorganization at the centre and with the reverse process. But this intricate mingling, actually on the spot as it were, of central with local authorities is surely a new thing. We shall do well to follow Mr. Lindsay's example and try to relate this new device to the permanent needs of government as we shall have to view them after the war. For, as *The Times* significantly remarks: "We are still passing from the theory, never fully realized in practice, of the *laisser faire* State . . . to open recognition of a twentieth-century State which is called upon by common consent to protect, to adjust, and to regulate the interests of the citizens at every point." The significance of all this will not be lost on those eager thinkers and workers who feel that new organs and conceptions of government will be needed if we are to achieve in the education of the future not only

Reorganized Local Government?

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greater efficiency but also that rare quality of 'magnanimity' of which Milton speaks—a word that we must ponder if we are to extract from it the full meaning that Milton intends. There are influences enough still with us—fears, vested interests, indolences, and the rest—to hinder us from thinking the new thoughts that will be necessary. So we can be all the more grateful to Mr. Lindsay for offering us the stimulus of a new vision.

Reconstruction, Unity, and Finance.

IN another significant editorial (March 18) *The Times* returned to a theme which it had already handled in a sufficiently striking way. Utterances by Mr. Greenwood and by some other Ministers whose preoccupation with war does not wholly prevent them from thinking and speaking on post-war problems, serve still further to keep the public mind aware of the dominating fact that war and post-war are but phases of the same period and the same tasks. *The Times* does well to remind us that sustained concentration of energy and resources will continue to be essential long after the armistice. But is it not vital to remember also that the effect of the armistice will be to bring into the open internal differences, strains, and cleavages which we do not talk about openly now, but which we may have to face then? If continuing unity is the jewel, should we not be thinking hard even now of the price that will have to be paid in some form or other by every section of the population? The realization of our hopes for education may depend much more upon changes in habits of thought and in traditional social attitudes than upon sheer finance. So we are glad to see *The Times* declaring roundly: "As Mr. Keynes has indicated, the problem is less one of finance than of the right distribution and application of available resources." In other words, if we can brace our energies and tighten our belts for war, perhaps we can continue to do something like it for education. Only it would have to be all the energies and all the belts.

English Traditions of Education.

PROF. F. CLARKE contributes to *The Schoolmaster* a thoughtful article on "English Traditions of Education". Far-reaching adaptations of our educational ideas and practices will, he says, be necessary in the period of profound social change that is already upon us, and for resources with which to meet the demand we shall turn more and more to the wealth of our own national tradition. Tendencies towards a rather vague 'internationalism' underestimate the dependence of an effective education upon a rich national inheritance. Thus it is important to scrutinize closely the history and significance of our various English traditions of education—there are more than one. The task is one calling for many workers, well equipped for research—amateurism is not enough. Sir Michael Sadler and Prof. Tawney have indicated how we should set about it. There are four main traditions, namely the Public School tradition, expressing the outlook of a dominant class; the Dissenter tradition, related to the religious cleavage which originated with the Reformation; the Elementary tradition, more social than educational, arising when there emerges a class of poor wholly dependent upon wages; and the Folk tradition, perhaps most genuinely educational of all, operating mainly outside the school and comprising the songs, tales, games, and nature lore that once enriched rural life. In enlarging upon these he covers ground which is well worthy of exploration, and the article is one more contribution to that stirring of the waters which is, we hope, the preliminary sign of much-needed reform.

Religious Instruction.

THE resolutions recently submitted by Lord Eustace Percy to the Newcastle-on-Tyne Education Committee, and referred by that committee to a special sub-committee, appear to us to move in the right direction. No amendment of the Cowper-Temple clause is proposed, but rather an attempt at the progressive improvement of agreed syllabuses. It is further proposed that the restriction of religious instruction to particular hours should be abolished, that H.M. Inspectors should be empowered to give the same advice and assistance as in other subjects, that teachers in training should have the same opportunities for fitting themselves in this as in other subjects, and that, in addition to a religious observance at the opening of the school day, there should be two full periods of religious instruction in the week. Some people who approve of the scheme generally are inclined to shake their heads at the suggestion that H.M. Inspectors might help. Yet such critics must admit that, except in areas where the local authority has brought about friendly co-operation between teachers and ministers of religion, the broad fact remains that religious instruction is the one and only part of the work of a provided school about which it is nobody's business to inquire, or even to take an interest. An inspector might very well be able to give 'advice and assistance' as to books and methods and pictorial illustrations which would in no way transgress the limitations laid down in the relevant section of the Act of 1921. We can imagine both teacher and inspector taking an equal interest in the enlightened and progressive work of the Institute of Christian Education—a work which, we are glad to see in a recent report, is still prospering under war conditions.

The Future in Education.

WE hope to publish in a later number an article by the President of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, on the book by the President of C.C.C., Oxford, entitled *The Future in Education*. In Sir Richard Livingstone's view the most urgent problem in education is "to give the masses of the nation some higher education, which will include that study of human ideals and achievement which we call literature, history, and politics, and that study of the material universe which we call science". These subjects, he says, can have little meaning for pupils in our primary and post-primary schools who have little experience of life. He holds up the Danish Folk Schools as a model which we should imitate, and calls attention to the fact that in Denmark compulsory school life ends at 13. We have every

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sympathy with Sir Richard's plea for more and better adult education, and agree that such education is most effective when the students are able to live for some continuous period in community life. On the other hand, we deprecate Sir Richard's apparent belittling of the effect of education in our primary and post-primary schools. Indeed, the Danish Folk Schools themselves have found that much of their work consists in trying to make good the deficiencies caused by the shortened school life of their students. More and better adult education, by all means, and more residential schools and courses for adult students, but also a longer and better school life for all. It is significant that the various bodies concerned in promoting adult education are strenuous in their demand for a lengthened school life for the 80 per cent of our boys and girls who now leave school at 14.

Children and Farm Work.

THE W.E.A. has addressed to Mr. Ramsbotham a vigorous protest against Circular 1541, which, it will be remembered, offered encouragement to the employment of children in agriculture. The W.E.A. takes the view that the employment of children of 12 should in no case be permitted, and it agrees with the Home Office Circular of February 7, 1940, in regarding the position respecting by-law regulation of such employment as unsatisfactory. It is aware that in some agricultural areas children are not attending school, and that the authorities are not prosecuting their parents. It fears that the present Circular will encourage the idea that it is more important to get children to work in the fields than to keep them at school. If children once get into the direct employment of farmers it is very difficult, especially at a time when legal controls have been relaxed, to get them back to school again. The W.E.A. is not convinced that it is necessary to reverse the trend of national policy regarding the employment of children at a time when the registration of women for national service has hardly begun. Further, the W.E.A. strongly objects to the proposal that school holidays should be fixed for those periods when the need for seasonal agricultural labour is greatest. To adjust secondary school holidays in this way, and, in addition, to send the pupils out on certain unspecified days in term time, is to abandon all hope of maintaining the standard of secondary education. We feel that there is much force in this protest, and the fact that the General Council of the Trades Union Congress is also critical of the proposal is an additional reason for urging that it should be reconsidered.

Science in War.

IN reply to a complaint from Lord Samuel that Government science is too academic, Lord Hankey in the House of Lords made a useful statement on scientific research in relation to the war. He admitted that applied scientists are not numerous on Government committees. This is to be rectified. The predilection of scientific researchers for 'committees' is remarkable, especially as the relations of the committees to superior bodies are often vague, if existent. Committees, a schoolboy wrote, "keep minutes and waste hours." Scientific researchers during war-time have no hours to waste. Even our daily bread is charged with artificial vitamins. In warfare, science is almost paramount. Victory or defeat may turn on some discovery, such as a means of detecting submarines. The lives and treasure at stake are colossal. Inevitably Nelson and Wellington must be better known to the public than Humphry Davy and Faraday. But the fullest recognition should be given of successful scientific research, especially in relation to the war. Every stimulus must be exercised. The position of science in our schools has been greatly strengthened. If the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing-fields of Eton, the decisive victory of the present war may be won in the laboratories of Eton.

Public Schools.

THE Union Society of Oxford University have decided by a narrow majority of 68 to 64 that public schools are an indefensible anachronism. An argument in support, advanced by Mr. J. D. M. Bell, was that the public school of the nineteenth century is responsible for the present political system. In their discomfort, public schools may derive some encouragement from the sympathy of Parliament. We have no means of ascertaining how serious may be the financial embarrassments of the public schools owing to the war. Instead of entrenching on capital, which will be made possible by the new Act, would it not be wiser to allow selected schools to increase their income by according greater latitude in the investment of trust funds? In the former case, capital is permanently destroyed, in the latter it is subjected to risk. If expert guidance is needed, a special investment trust could be created. Professor Tawney, in a letter which appeared in the April number of this *Journal*, pointed out that the term 'public school' is not self-explanatory, and that there are at least three types of schools which differ widely from one another. If we continue to discuss this question without appreciating these differences, we are likely to fall into serious error. The Board of Education would do a useful piece of work if they would supply us with the necessary facts and figures.

Raising the Reserved Age.

IT has long been evident that the large new demands on the man-power of the country would again affect the teachers. The raising of the reserved age to 35 is no surprise therefore, and it is being applied so as to cause the minimum of inconvenience. The new group will not be called for the services till mid-July when the summer term is virtually at an end. Provision will be made for the exemption of 'key' men, particularly science teachers, and headmasters and governors will have the invidious task of selecting by the end of May those for whom exemption is to be claimed. We hope that in this process the schools will not be denuded of their arts graduates, for there has been rather too much emphasis of late on the peculiar value of the science specialist. The raising of the age also makes it essential in our view for one anomaly to be corrected. At present Grade III

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teachers who are in that medical grade only on account of defective vision are being called to the forces. We know of several honours graduates who are filling in forms in Army Pay Corps offices which could be completed by boys of 17. These men would be far more profitably employed in the schools, and the imminent calling up of older men with the consequent increase in staffing difficulties ought to be followed by the return to the schools of all enlisted Grade III teachers.

The War Bonus.

THE fact that, as from March 1, over 300,000 Civil Servants received an increase in their war bonus has strengthened the demand for a more adequate bonus for teachers. Civil Servants earning not more than £250 a year now receive 10s. per week (men) or 7s. 6d. (women) in place of the present 5s. Moreover, men earning between £250 and £350 a year now get 5s., and women earning between £250 and £300 get 4s. In the face of these figures there can be no excuse for restricting the war bonus payable to teachers to those in receipt of salaries not exceeding £260—and even this meagre award is not being universally applied, for only 277 out of 315 local authorities have up to now accepted the recommendations in their entirety. The teachers asked at first for 6 per cent on the first £300 and 3 per cent on the next £200, though the increased cost of living has since made these proposals inadequate. As *The A.M.A.* remarks, it is becoming increasingly clear that the conditions of hardship consequent upon the war operate over the whole range of salaries received by teachers. The cost of living has increased by 26 per cent, and, though nobody would claim that teachers should have their salaries raised by this amount, they are bearing more than their fair share of the common burden. We hope there will be no further delay in arriving at an equitable settlement of this problem.

Juvenile Crime.

MANY people have been disturbed by the increase in juvenile crime which has occurred since the war began, but, as *The Times Educational Supplement* after paying a well-deserved tribute to probation officers remarks in a leading article, the most potent cause of this increase is the broken home, with consequent lack or weakening of parental care and control. Clubs and youth centres, properly run, should be both controls and directives, but it is necessary to begin earlier. " Every new day nursery, every new nursery centre and nursery school, is a safeguard against adolescent delinquency; every bottle of milk consumed in school, every physical defect remedied by the school medical service, and still more—when we reach the pitch of caring as much for mental as for physical health—every inhibition removed and repression eased, will add its quota to the tale of prevention. Every reform in the school curriculum tending to reduce feelings of tension and frustration brings aid to the attack upon juvenile crime, as does every alteration in the life of the school community bringing a greater access of ordered freedom. . . . Every measure, in fact, which reduces the strains and tensions of industrial, social, or domestic life will reduce the number of youthful offenders. Any measure which does not reduce strain is but a palliative, or worse." These wise words deserve the most careful attention. We agree with our contemporary that even in war-time a beginning could be made by establishing more nursery centres, play centres, and youth centres, by giving more attention to the nutrition and health of children, and by reducing the working hours of younger adolescents in industry.

Juvenile Crime in Scotland.

THE Lanarkshire Education Committee have appointed a sub-committee with a view to getting all Scottish local authorities to meet on the subject of juvenile crime. In the early part of the war there was no remarkable increase in the incidence of juvenile misdemeanour of a serious kind, but more recent reports all go to show that the figures are moving up in a disquieting manner. A strong plea against the setting up of more remand or approved schools was made on the ground that these simply led to Borstal and to prison, an unjustifiable reflection on the good work done in many approved schools. Child guidance clinics for the psychological treatment of offenders are also advocated, although the workers at such clinics would themselves be the first to doubt whether, without sustained parental assistance, much could be done. It is precisely this lack of parental control, together with all the exciting and disturbing features of war-time existence, that is making for the increase, a fact strongly stressed in such annual reports as that of the Edinburgh Juvenile Organizations Committee. We feel that, while the approved school will remain essential for many a day to come, the claim of the residential child guidance centre such as that set up by the Glasgow Education Committee must receive close study.

Log-books in Welsh Schools.

IN 1936 the Librarian of the National Library of Wales sent a letter to all directors of education and clerks of education authorities in Wales urging authorities to collect and preserve in central repositories all expired log-books of schools within their jurisdiction and to compile surveys of their contents. The response was disappointing except in the Diocese of St. David's, which covers the counties of Carmarthen, Cardigan, and Pembroke, where the diocesan authorities had co-operated in collecting and sending to the library a large number of log-books of non-provided schools. Cardiganshire, in which the National Library is situated, and Carmarthenshire are also co-operating actively in this matter. These important records are lying about in school cupboards and the box-rooms of vicarages, and will soon be lost unless some intelligent effort be made for their preservation. To the research student they provide material for a vivid history of education in Wales besides which the ordinary text-book on the history of education would, indeed, be a dry-as-dust volume. Here would be a record of the journey of ' the ark of the covenant ' through the arid deserts of ' payment by results ' days, and the days of ' chalk, slate and duster ', to the more spacious days of pre-war times and the dawn of happiness and freedom in our schools.

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THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

By J. H. SIMPSON, The College of S. Mark and S. John

I AM so far in sympathy with almost everything said by Mr. Jacks in his article in the January number of *The Journal* and with his approach to the professional education of the teacher (evidently he dislikes the term training of teachers as much as I do) that I find it difficult to write on the same subject without laying myself open to the charge of plagiarism. If I can usefully supplement what he has said so admirably, it will be by trying to emphasize those aspects of the subject which particularly concern the residential training colleges, since, except as a student a good many years ago, I have had no personal experience of a university training department.

There are three principal factors which must determine the character of the professional preparation of a teacher for his work, and without constant reference to them all discussion of the subject must be nebulous and unreal. There is the educational system for work in which he is to be prepared; there is the quality of the human material which presents itself for preparation; and there is the quality—estimated in terms of personality, competence, and professional experience—of those by whom the work of preparation is performed.

If the objective of the preparation is shifting or ill-defined, the training colleges cannot wholly be held to blame if they do not always achieve it. That, I believe, is the position at present. The educational system includes, of course, the actual organization of the schools to which young teachers are appointed. That organization has been for the past dozen years in a state of transition. To take only one example—the publication of the Hadow Report, the raising of the school-leaving age, and its probable further rise, and the growing tendency (exemplified and reinforced by the Spens Report) to regard the education of all children over 11 as one, have suggested an altogether new picture of the school life for which the teachers of senior children will be responsible. But reorganization in many areas has lagged—in fact if not in name—far behind the vision of reformers. If it is true, as I think it is, that in some respects, to quote Mr. Jacks, " we are training for the schools of a generation ago ", it is also true that we are partly training for senior schools which in many parts of the country do not yet exist.

But the organization and interconnexion of schools, like the education provided within them, should embody some principles, some philosophy of education, upon which there is a large measure of agreement. This is not true of English education to-day, and the preparation of the teacher is made all the more difficult. The young teacher is apt to be " hot for certainties ", and the anomalies and discrepancies of which English education is full return him " a dusty answer ". He develops both a professional and a personal impatience with the compromises and silences covering the issues on which the country has never quite made up its mind. Examples occur readily. There is the place of religion in our schools, about which there lies so thick a mist of intellectual dishonesty. There is the delicate question about education for citizenship—should it include positive inculcation in what the teacher holds to be democratic principles? There is the question so frequently asked now in connexion with the future of the public schools, but of much wider application, whether schools are to continue to be differentiated by social gradation, a question with which is intimately connected the whole problem of the status of the teacher in the community.

The relation between the teacher and society is bound to engage the attention of those helping to prepare young teachers for their future work, and that for two reasons. The teacher is from one point of view the agent by whom society hands on what is best in its traditions to the rising generation, and by whom that generation is aided to pass without unnecessary strain and stress from the necessary period of tutelage into membership of adult communities. It is extremely desirable, therefore, that his own education should enable him to acquire an attitude to society which is derived from something other than prejudice or emotion. One result, and that not the least, of what he learns about human nature at college, whether by way of a course of psychology or otherwise, should be a conviction that a merely resentful or impatient attitude to the society in which he lives, and to its institutions and traditions, is not good enough. I am not advocating that he should not feel strongly about the political and social problems of the day. All kinds of healthy sixth-form extremisms may well be among the ingredients to be found in this particular melting-pot. But, if the life and teaching of a college do not make a young man less suggestible to the Cleons of the twentieth century, and do not help him to temper strong convictions with a habit of clear thinking, they will have failed in one important part of their function.

In quite another sense, too, it is desirable that social preparation should form part of professional preparation. No doubt the status of the teaching profession as a whole has improved considerably in popular esteem during the past thirty years. But it would be simply untrue to say that even to-day all teachers are counted as professional men in the same sense as, say, doctors or solicitors, though some certainly are so regarded. Whatever we may think about the profession being *unified*—to my mind the word smacks a little too much of uniformity—we all want to see it *united*, and one step to that end will be achieved if in their course of training young teachers who have experienced different kinds of social and economic conditions can come together and learn to understand conventions and traditions with which previously they have not been familiar.

With regard to the quality of those entering training colleges, nobody can work in one of them for a few years without appreciating the aggregate of good will, good sense, and even enthusiasm which they receive year by year. But one must be realistic, and to appreciate the many merits and good intentions of those who offer themselves for admission and are accepted, is not necessarily to hold that they are as a whole good enough for the work of outstanding importance for which they are required. The demands of the popular schools of the country, as envisaged for example in the Board's *Suggestions to Teachers*, are exacting, and education, when it is among other things a contest against shallow materialism and crude suggestibility, requires a better equipped combatant than when it was primarily a contest against illiteracy. In academic ability the entrants to a training college may be spread over a wide range. Although there is nothing to show that headmasters of secondary schools often encourage their abler boys to enter training colleges—the evidence is quite to the contrary—there may be at the top a certain number of students who have only just missed an open scholarship or exhibition at one of the older universities, or have failed by a few meaningless marks to secure a State scholarship or one of the major scholarships offered by their local education authority. At the other end there are in lean years some who have found it a sufficiently laborious process to obtain a school certificate within the twelve or eighteen months previous to their entering college. For that reason I doubt whether courses on the social sciences and allied subjects can at present to any considerable extent take the place of existing courses, though the latter might certainly be further integrated, and sometimes given a rather different bias. I am entirely in favour of the student learning all that he can about the relation of education to social and economic

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conditions. Indeed I believe that to the man teacher, who has not the woman's innate propensity to care deeply about the young, a real enthusiasm for education often comes first from knowledge of that kind. Eventually full provision must be made for the study and experience which make that knowledge possible. If every student had spent a full two years in a sixth form after passing the school certificate examination (not necessarily working for a higher certificate), it might be possible to reduce the courses substantially, so that they were designed to give a new approach rather than to impart new matter. But, as things are, it is too often a first charge on the time and energy of a staff to see that students have an adequate knowledge of the subjects which they will be required to teach in school.

We have to remember the existence of the weaker students, when we hear talk about degrees for all teachers. The very last thing that they need after the severely examined courses of the secondary schools is to be ridden hard at fences which they can take with the utmost difficulty, if at all. We must remember their existence, too, if claims are put forward, without reference to financial conditions, for an additional continuous year of training for all teachers, irrespective of their ability. All teachers, no doubt, benefit from ' refresher ' courses at various stages of their teaching career. But, if only a limited amount of money is available for the preparation of teachers after the war, it is doubtful whether an additional continuous year for every one will be the wisest way to invest it. I was deeply interested to find Mr. Jacks advocating a kind of staff college in Education, an institution of which I have often had dreams, though we might not agree in detail about its functions and constitution. (Incidentally, one value of the suggestion is that a staff college implies a general staff, which is exactly what English education hitherto has conspicuously lacked.) The entrants to such a college would presumably be those—whatever their previous training, and in whatever type of school they had taught—who had proved by their work in the actual conditions of school life that they had the capacity and determination to pursue a further course of study with advantage to themselves and the schools. The entrants would not include those young men and women who had the capacity to be useful and conscientious practitioners and no more, nor those young women, sometimes, no doubt, of exceptional ability, who after a few years of teaching leave the profession for marriage or some other career. The college, if it were to come, would stand for *quality*, and the necessary expenditure would be incurred on those most capable of using it to the advantage of themselves and others.

I believe that the more we come to think of the education of all children over eleven as one, the more we shall see the need for at least three kinds of trained teacher. There will be the graduate in honours, who follows his degree course by a year of professional study. If some honours courses are modified on the lines suggested by Dr. Löwe in his *Universities in Transition*, so much the better. There will be the teacher who has obtained his professional qualification after a course of two years, whether that qualification is called certificate or diploma. And I believe there will be room for the teacher who has taken a course of three years leading to a pass degree in three subjects, of which Education is one, and perhaps the one that gives unity and coherence to the whole. It will be entirely to the good if they can all receive their training in colleges so closely associated that they can share some social and intellectual life. In this way intending teachers from very different homes will come to understand each other, and the academically weaker students will be stimulated by the stronger. Those considerations rather than the usual charge of ' segregation ' seem to me to be the real argument for making the association between training colleges closer than a merely ' examinational ' one. As to ' segregation ', there are modern universities which largely depend for their existence upon the presence of intending teachers, and life in some of their hostels is probably nearly as ' segregated ' as in a training college. Moreover, if we are sincere in talking about teaching as a ' vocation ', if we hope that many students will regard it as something even more than an honest job honestly to be performed, it will scarcely be inappropriate for the prospective teacher to experience for a few years a particular kind of community life not required by other students.

It would be irrelevant and invidious to discuss here the question whether the capacities of these young men have been put to the best use during their secondary education. Nothing is easier or more futile than to blame the secondary schools for not doing what it is virtually impossible for them to do, so long as public opinion regards secondary education primarily as a process of passing examinations and a means of social and occupational ascent. But, if we are to aim at ' the production of the right type of men and women, rather than of the technical expert ', two characteristics of many, by no means of all, entrants to training colleges seem to me to be disquieting. First, there seems to have been little attempt to give them any coherent view of life or set of principles, even if it were a view which the restlessness of youth made them criticize or temporarily reject. The religious interpretation has in many cases been just left out, and nothing coherent suggested in its place. Secondly, there is a noticeable and depressing tendency to pay attention only to those aspects of their studies which students believe to have a directly examinable value, and to be diffident, and even restive, when invited to follow lines of thought which do not lead straight to the one narrow objective. The damnable question " But is it in the syllabus ? " is too often in their minds, if not on their lips. For these two weaknesses no remedy, I am convinced, is to be found in improved syllabuses and examinations and administrative apparatus. The need is for adequate leisure in which new interests can be acquired and old ones furthered, and for students to be able to experience the conversation and companionship of older people who have some kind of faith, which they openly profess, some width of experience, and cultural interests of their own—in other words for the right kind of tutorial system worked by the right kind of tutors.

A tutorial system giving opportunity for frank and informal discussion, as well as occasionally for individual tuition, is the best antidote to another element in the mental attitude of many students, which prevents them from getting the best out of their college life. I mean a certain lack of confidence, a sense of inferiority, flavoured sometimes with a downright distrust of older people in authority, which may be covered by an assumed indifference, independence, or in extreme cases aggressiveness. Unfortunately the traditional discipline of residential training colleges was too often in the past such as to intensify and exacerbate this feeling, and survivals from that discredited régime are to be found even to-day. The ordinary training college student has had, after all, a good deal to contend with in the course of his boyhood and youth. The benevolence which, no doubt, lies behind a State-aided system of schools, and scholarships, and loans is apt to be disguised by a façade of administration and personnel which may seem unsympathetic, arbitrary, and somehow ' superior ', to those whom the system is in fact designed to benefit. To meet an older, and presumably better educated, person who will talk *with* him and not *at* him, who will take an obvious interest in him, and believe in the best in him, may at this stage make all the difference to a student who is uneasily conscious both of what he has lacked and of what is due to him. Better still if this can come about in a wisely and graciously planned college life in which the appreciation of right values will be instilled inevitably though imperceptibly.

In the last resort the success of any form of professional education will depend upon the tutorial staff. In a residential training college I suggest that the perfect staff would contain three elements, which need not be mutually

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exclusive. There would be those who were outstanding academically, and would represent first-rate standards in some subject or assembly of subjects. There would be those who could bring to the college some specially interesting or varied experience of schools and school life. There would be those possessing special gifts for personal—or pastoral—work with students. The staff would be larger than is now customary and would include both permanent members and others ' seconded ' from schools for a period of service in a training college. I do not believe that because a college is preparing students for work in junior and senior schools it is necessary that all or many of its tutors should have themselves been regular members of the staff of those schools. The apprentice must learn, of course, from the master craftsman, but the right place to learn from the master craftsman is in his workshop, in this case in the school. The training college cannot usefully attempt to do prematurely what can only be done in the first years of teaching, and will be done better when young teachers are sent to more carefully selected schools than is always the case at present.

There remains the question—are the conditions of work in training colleges, material, social, professional, such as to attract the right people to their service, or, at least, not to deter them from it ? They should be among the pick of the teaching profession. There is plenty of flaccid talk about those engaged in this work holding the key positions in education. There is nothing, however, in the salaries with which they are remunerated or in the promotion which they commonly receive to indicate that this view is taken seriously by those who in their several capacities make appointments to the teaching and administrative services and have the final financial control.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT: "OVERCROWDING"

By P. H. ROONEY, S.J., M.A.

DEAR T. P.,

Thank you for returning the article on " The First Four Years of the Secondary Curriculum ", and also for your comments on it. Of course I was not offended by the frankness of the latter ; on the contrary, I assume that you wanted to start an argument, and would like me to answer in the same spirit. So here you are.

First of all, I might have saved some cross-purposes if I had remembered to tell you that the writer of the article was brought up at a boarding school very similar to the one over which you rule ; and so at least to that extent he did know what he was talking about. True, his outlook is probably coloured by a more recent picture of the curriculum in State secondary schools, a picture—you and I must remind ourselves—not of some idyllic state, but of something that is actually being done. When he attacks the overcrowding of the curriculum he certainly has in mind, for example, a junior school time-table that includes per week two periods of physical education, two of music, two of woodwork, and possibly one each of art and football or cricket. But please don't jump to a hasty " That's what I said ! " ; you have missed the point of his argument completely if you think he is complaining about these eight periods. In fact, he regards them as the bright spots in a dark picture.

The truth is, although it is painful for either of us to have to admit it, that he has already passed through a stage of curriculum development that we are only beginning ; he is tackling another stage, and even foreshadowing a third stage. If I can prove this to you, it may suggest a reason why you should have found his language so ' impracticable ' and ' remote from reality '. When I refer to the stage which contains our efforts as the ' first ', I am not, of course, suggesting that we are medieval or antediluvian. Endless ' stages ' have preceded ours, and ours is merely first in the sense of being one of the most recent three. It is still therefore quite up to date, quite modern—I am not calling you an old fogy ! All the same, it is a stage which has been developing for a long time ; every step in it has been fought bitterly, and it has not reached its climax yet. We might describe it under a general classification as a struggle for franchise on behalf of subjects other than Latin and Greek. You will tell me that this is ancient history, that the privileges of the classics were lost a hundred years ago, and that it is beating a dead horse to bring up this point in the 1940's. But that was not a stage, but a step ; the sharing of privileges with a few other favoured subjects (and what grudging favour it was !) such as mathematics, science, history, and modern languages, was but the initial movement towards the equality of curriculum-rights for all subjects. If you are honest with yourself, you will admit that that battle is still going on—at least in the type of school with which you and I are familiar. What, for example, was your attitude to the use of those eight periods I mentioned above ? Do you really consider physical education as a curriculum subject at all ? Yet the writer of the article in question certainly does, and that is one reason why his article makes nonsense to you. You are still fighting the ' battle of rights ' ; he has granted universal franchise and is considering a state which is the result of that concession. This is just a statement of historical fact ; I am passing no judgment on the rights and wrongs of such a concession.

May I put the situation pictorially as follows : When you sit down to construct your time-table you have before you a sheet of paper with, say, thirty-two squares representing the number of periods per week available, and another sheet of paper on which are written the subjects you have for various reasons admitted to a place on the curriculum. These reasons can probably be fairly summed up under three headings : (1) educational values—though that is rather begging the question ; (2) the demands of parents ; (3) the availability of teachers and their demands. (I am assuming for argument sake and to avoid red herrings that exam-requirements coincide with reason 1.) There are probably eight or nine subjects on sheet 2, and your task is to fit them into the squares on sheet 1 in some proportion that will satisfy the various reasons for which they are there. The ' overcrowded curriculum ' means in your case the simple fact that eight goes into thirty-two four times, and four periods a week is far too little for Latin or Greek or for any other individual subject taught on the same lines. You solve the problem by ' paring ' the subject which has the least backing of ' reasons ', or by putting a pencil through it. It is as simple as that, and you don't write articles in learned papers about it. Of course, there may be some anxious moments when you come to explain your time-table to parents or staff, but in the long run it is simply a question of fact—there just isn't time. Reason number 1 —' educational values '—is the one that will probably give your professional conscience most trouble. If I asked you to write down on the back of sheet 2 a summary of those values, I imagine the briefest statement of them would be : (*a*) mental training, (*b*) essential knowledge-content. Consequently, if your pencil-line happened to be through ' Art ', it would be fair to argue that you considered that art gave less mental training and contained less essential knowledge than any other single subject on the list and therefore it had to go. I hope that gives an adequate picture-outline of your (and my) methods of constructing a time-table. It

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also represents very roughly Stage 1 of curriculum development.

Now let us look at X (the writer of the article) drawing up his time-table. He has before him the same sheet with thirty-two squares. On sheet 2 he also has a list of subjects, but they amount to, say, twelve. And his task is similar to yours, to fit these twelve into the thirty-two squares. Is the only difference then between you and him one of number, the fact that he has four more subjects to juggle with or dismiss? Is his problem of overcrowding different from yours only in degree, or is it also different in kind? Certainly a difference in kind seems to be the only explanation of the undoubted fact that, when he takes his pencil to sheet 2, he is as likely to add yet another subject as you are to cross one out. Nothing in our attitude to the curriculum could reconcile such a step with our complaints about overcrowding; even if we could talk down or override staff and parents, we would have to recast entirely our first reas n for including subjects on the curriculum—the reason I have called 'educational values'. On the whole, it is likely that X has to deal with parents and staff who are even less amenable to being overridden than ours are. But he may be a superman or a superheadmaster, in which case it still remains obvious that his educational values must be different from yours and mine.

I suggest, first of all, that he uses them differently. I pictured you above weighing the educational value of art against that of the next subject on the list; art was the lighter, it had less of the thing we call 'educational value', therefore it had to go. In other words, 'educational value' is used as a sort of quantitative measurement, a standard of quantity by which we test subjects for admission to the curriculum. If logic were rigidly pursued under this principle, it would seem to follow that, if one subject alone surpassed all the others in the quantity of 'educational value' it contained, there would be no reason to admit any other subject. The old classicists did believe and act on some such principle. They felt that, if you went deep enough into the classics, you would find everything there. Now, X has quite a different standard for measuring subjects, or rather, since I have not yet gone into the details of his educational values, let us still say that he has a different way of using his standard. He does not weigh subject 8 against subject 7; he does not even number his subjects in descending order of values. Remember what I have said before: he has conceded full rights to all subjects. Hence, he examines each subject by itself, not in comparison with others; and he looks at it to see what it can offer; he is looking for qualities rather than quantity. If it has certain qualities (and, *ceteris paribus*, no matter how small the quantity), he will try to devise a method of fitting it into the curriculum at all costs. It consequently becomes necessary to try to summarize those qualities, to compare his 'educational values' with ours.

When I said that you were not an old fogy it was not merely to palliate rude remarks ahead. I meant it. You do not, for example, hold the strict theory of mental discipline as held by the old classicists. You admit other subjects to the curriculum because you believe that different types of mental training are necessary. No doubt you believe—as I unashamedly do—that the best training is still to be had by those who can take it from a good classical course. But I wonder if you would go farther and say that this is due rather to the supply of good masters and to the existence of a strong tradition of teaching than to anything like a 'law of nature'—something inherent in the classics as such? However, the point is not important for the moment. The main thing is that you admit the desirability of a certain broadening of the curriculum. Now, twenty years ago X would have gone a good deal farther. He would have said that breadth was everything because—there was no such thing as mental training. (The question deserves a letter of its own; here I am not trying to prove or defend anything, but to show the reason for the differences between you and X.) But in the past two decades that contradiction has been tempered, and the most that X would say now is that the proof of mental training is so uncertain that it provides no safe principle on which to choose subjects for the curriculum. So much for the negative differences.

To formulate his positive principles shortly is not so easy. I am inclined to imagine that, whereas you think primarily of the subject and its value, his first thoughts go to the child. What does the child need to get from the curriculum? And his answer gives him his main principle: That which will give him as complete a picture of the world as he is at present capable of acquiring, and will later enable him to understand as fully as possible the world in which he must live. Obviously no one subject is going either to give an adequate picture of the world or to satisfy a child's capabilities; the tendency of such a principle will be to include more rather than less. But—and this is the important point—not more of the same thing (*e.g.* quantity of mental training), but more different things (*i.e.* different qualities). His aim is not a minimum essential training, but a maximum breadth of understanding.

You will realize that I have been indulging in simplification beyond the safety-point if this were supposed to be a systematic treatise on educational theory. Both you and X make use of many more principles than the ones with which I have credited you. But all I am concerned to prove is that there are fundamental divergences of principle which give the word 'overcrowding' different meanings in his experience and in yours. And I hope I have said enough now to show that 'overcrowding' as you understand it—"too many subjects for too few periods"—is not his problem at all. His real difficulty is: "Too much of each subject for too small minds"—but that needs explaining.

Acting on his desire to make the curriculum represent as broad a picture of the world as possible and to satisfy as many capabilities as the child possesses, X has admitted a large number of subjects. His criterion in each case is the different contribution that each subject makes to the picture and the different line it opens up for the child. To teach these subjects he has called in specially qualified masters. Now, the specialist, as you know, has made a great contribution to the practice and theory of teaching, but he has his drawbacks. He is apt to be an enthusiast, and an enthusiast along one line at that. His own training has taken him deep into his subject, and he tends to find it difficult to teach in breadth rather than in depth. His instinct, unless he is very enlightened, is to attempt to reproduce other specialists in his subject, to make the child, as one writer has put it, "an increasing fraction of a professor". The result is that his syllabus, especially in the earlier years, has become more and more detailed, and in his effort to 'go deep' he finds it increasingly difficult to 'cover' the syllabus as originally outlined. How much more difficult it must be for the child who has to follow not only him but at the same time seven or eight others of his specialist colleagues!

Here then we have the setting for X's problem of overcrowding. Having deployed a platoon to advance in open order across a field, he finds each soldier digging himself in beside the near hedge, sweating over dug-outs and supports that will never be needed, and pushing slowly forward through communication trenches with little prospect of reaching the other side of the field in the time available. Or, to revert to educational terminology, the fault that has emerged in the broadening of the curriculum (Stage 2) is that subjects are being taught too slowly and are not being taken far enough. So, to remedy his overcrowding problem, X takes up his pencil just as you did, but he does not bring it into action on sheet 2. Instead, he reaches across the table to his sheaf of syllabuses. Under each subject heading he scores out much that he considers unnecessary, much that is repeated under another heading. Anything that can be justified only on some theory of mental training, any-

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thing that does not contribute to an understanding of the world or, alternately, that does not release some new potentiality in the child, comes under the lead. Many pages of unreal maths. problems, much senseless laboratory work, probably considerable pages of Latin author will suffer in this way. And at the end of each reduced syllabus X will add one or two sections that will open up vistas of more advanced maths. and physics and chemistry, and readings outside the usual run of Horace, Virgil, and Caesar.

In spite of eschewing qualifications in order to keep the outline of the argument distinct, there is one caution which I feel justice demands at this point. I cannot leave X open to the charge of undervaluing studies in depth entirely. Without this qualification, I know you would accuse him of superficiality, of dabbling with a number of subjects and of plumbing none of them. And you would back your accusation with a perfectly justified assertion of the place of the expert in the modern world. But I am afraid you would find the argument twisted against yourself. X would retort that, though it may sound paradoxical, studies in depth have in practice produced just that superficiality which you decry. In your syllabus, the trees have been far too thick for the wood; the mass of detail has prevented a real grasp of the subject. Take the children in depth by all means, but let it be *in* their depth and not *out* of their depth. X would claim that, far from minimizing children's ability, far from thinking they can do less than you think they can do, he knows they can do a good deal more than you ever ask from them—but it must be at their own level. When they are old enough, in the last two years of their secondary curriculum, he provides ample opportunities for specialization. You may reject this line of argument, but I warn you to be careful how you word your charge.

So much for the second stage of curriculum development. For the present, I must close the trap on it and on all the subsidiary points in it that are clamouring for discussion. If these sketchy ideas have any value, they will have shown you that X was writing about a very real situation, quite different in its details from the one which provides your problem, and one which was well worth discussing.

There remains the third movement in this educational symphony, and I have suggested that X has already sounded a few notes of its opening theme. They came in his passages with his specialist masters. It is easy to imagine that his administrative troubles are not over when he presents his staff with their eviscerated syllabuses. There will be a good deal of questioning and protest—unless he can make them see their subjects' place in the curriculum as a whole. Hence, the new tune runs somewhat like this: "Educationally speaking, it is becoming clearer and clearer that the next task before headmasters and staffs involves a change of outlook based on the conception of the curriculum as a unity, or at least as a number of simple unities welding into intelligible wholes the existing masses of unrelated material. The question is not merely an administrative one. Psychology asserts roundly that the best education is the one which gives the power to see most relations between things, and the best mind is the one which has the power to reduce these relations to the fewest general principles. It is true that we cannot create that power where it does not exist, but we can provide conditions in which it may flourish. The curriculum as it stands, both in Stage 1 and Stage 2, is an open invitation to the child to develop a 'compartment-mind'."

Something of this work of unification has already been attempted within individual groups of subjects. I have by me a recent text-book of general science. In the course of some 240 pages it appears to deal quite happily and coherently with material that we have hitherto segregated into clearly separated compartments: Statics, Dynamics, Chemistry, Hydrostatics, Heat, Light, Astronomy, and Biology. And is not the development of Geography as a subject another illustration of this move towards interrelation and unity? But few large-scale applications of this principle to the curriculum as a whole appear to have been made as yet in this country.

May we take a last look at a curriculum-maker, at work now on Stage 3 principles? His first task will be to regroup the contents of X's amended syllabus sheets under four or five headings only. It will be a long job, but we may speed up the camera and see him turn next to his squared period-sheet. Here he gets to work with an india-rubber and removes some of those symbolic lines of division between the squares. Then he fits his five 'subjects' into these enlarged periods. It all sounds so simple! Yet, unless he can infect his masters with his own ideas, he may well find himself without a staff to teach his curriculum. And, unless he can enlist their whole-hearted co-operation in the testing of principles, material, and methods, he will almost certainly find the regrading of the syllabuses on a satisfactory basis beyond his unaided powers. The success of such a scheme will depend on a concentrated and prolonged co-operative effort; it can never be a one-man crusade.

There is nothing essentially organic about the development of the three stages which are the subject of this letter, except that in fact the shortcomings of one stage have led to the reorganization of the next. But, if a group of pioneers can prove that there is something of permanent value in Stage 3, there seems to be no reason why you and I should not omit Stage 2 in our own curriculum development. If you are interested in the prospect, I will gladly take the matter up in a further letter.

Ever yours,

P. H. R.

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RESEARCH AND SCHOOL WORK

I—THE TEACHING OF READING

By Dr. C. M. FLEMING, Acting Head, Department of Higher Degrees and Research, Institute of Education, University of London

THE word ' research ' is here used, not to designate any specific method of procedure, but to indicate a point of view—an attitude of inquiry and of willingness to test any theory against the evidence of the most carefully scrutinized and representative body of available facts. It implies a readiness to give up preconceived notions and to seek humbly for guidance not only from traditional interpretations but also from direct observation and experimental manipulation in any field of study.

The last forty years in the educational world have been characterized by an increasing willingness to apply the methods of research to the solution of educational problems —to base policy upon the results of investigation and to seek information about actual conditions and needs both in the schools and in the adult community.

In addition to these researches, there have been studies of the teaching of the separate subjects of the primary and the secondary school. While many of these cannot claim to be ' scientific ' in the strict sense of the word, they represent an effort to base modifications of practice upon the proven needs, interests, and equipment of pupils ; and the evidence they offer has enabled some teachers to economize time while increasing the effectiveness of their teaching.

Records of such investigations are, however, rarely brought together in a form accessible to teachers, and it seems therefore desirable to ask what has been the contribution of the scientific movement to the teaching of the special subjects, and what assistance the practising teacher can get from the work that has been done.

More exact information may help a teacher to solve his problems. A teacher should have easy access to such exact information.

The beginnings of research upon reading may be traced to laboratory studies of visual perception and eye-movement in the middle of the nineteenth century. The extent of its effect may be judged by a comparison of present-day methods and text-books with the complacent formalism of nineteenth century class-teaching and the closely-printed highly-instructive volumes then used as reading materials.

In the beginning of the twentieth century, psychologists were invited to measure the products of the schools ; and the results of their survey tests led to the recognition of widespread differences in initial ability, rate of learning, and power of retentiveness. These, expressed in terms of reading, were much more impressive than had been similar laboratory findings on perceptional differences half a century earlier. Their challenge was met in two ways :

(*a*) By a more careful analysis of what was involved in the process of reading, and,

(*b*) By an examination of the existing organization of teaching on class lines.

In this simple way two movements were born—that towards scientific educational diagnosis, and that towards individualized instruction and adaptation of the school to the needs of the pupils.

Contemporary with these, and providing their theoretical justification, went changes in the psychology of learning—also based on the application of experimental evidence to the problems of the mind. More attention was, in consequence, paid to the discovery of the past history, attitudes, and interests of the pupils ; and more emphasis was laid on the value of their co-operation and active responsibility.

Early reading tests were very simple in type. They consisted merely of extracts to be read for a measurable time—perhaps thirty seconds. Success was estimated by counting the number of words read and the number of errors. Comprehension might also be tested by noting the number of words which correctly reproduced the thought in a subsequent written report.

Next, efforts were made to measure knowledge of letters and words, ability to follow directions, and power to answer specific questions on short paragraphs. The results of these tests confirmed earlier evidence as to the range of differences of achievement among pupils of the same age or class, and the extent of overlapping from year to year and from class to class. This threw investigators back on to the problem of the nature of the abilities involved in reading ; and, in place of exercise of the simple unitary activity called ' reading ', it was realized that special types of training were required for such specific aspects as recognizing the meaning of words, getting the significance of a paragraph, understanding precise directions, noting special details, anticipating the outcome of given events, using an index, and rearranging given material. Tests devised to measure such special activities made diagnosis of difficulties much more possible, and the devices used in their construction had some share in modifying the character of reading-books for school use.

Realization of individual differences also made it less possible for teachers to expect uniform results from mass instruction of large classes of pupils. It was admitted that pupils do not all learn in the same way and at the same rate ; and changes in organization such as the Dalton Plan or the Winnetka Technique* gained a certain measure of support.

The acceptance of more individualized methods made it essential to train pupils how to study effectively. This led, in the years between 1920 and 1925, to a marked increase in emphasis on silent reading and on means of training towards its successful performance.

From this movement also came modifications of the content of school readers, and an alteration of their character from text-books designed for detailed oral discussion to story-books planned for rapid reading and active assimilation.

Attention to the activity of pupils in the learning process led rapidly to questions as to whether the new class-books were exactly suited to the needs of their readers. Inquiries were begun into the reading which pupils did out of school ; and attempts were made to choose school-books whose vocabulary, contents, and sentence-structure were adapted to the pupils' level. It was believed that their selection should be determined, not by adult preference, nor in the light of adult aims, but in accordance with the interests and the ability of the pupils.

Well-organized schools began to use reading tests as part of their equipment. Supplementary readers were introduced. Library services were developed ; and methods of class handling were reorganized to release pupils from the boredom of listening to all the oral reading practice of their companions.

The greater attention to individual difficulties which such changes in method made possible increased the interest of teachers in diagnosis and remedial treatment. Greater use

* A technique worked out in the schools of Winnetka, Illinois, under the leadership of Carleton Washburne. It involves careful analysis of the content of courses, the use of diagnostic tests, and the rewriting of text-books, so that pupils may achieve considerable independence of the oral directions of the teacher. An accessible English account of its details may be found in *Individual Work in Primary Schools*, C. M. Fleming. Harrap, 1934.

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began to be made of the services offered by psychologists in guidance clinics; and the complexity of contributory factors began to be realized.

Failure was discovered to be associated with inequalities in:

(*a*) Intellectual development, including mental age, ability to recollect forms, and ability to do abstract thinking;

(*b*) Physical development, including adequate health, vision, and hearing;

(*c*) Personal development, including emotional stability, and the habits and attitudes needed for adjustment to school and home conditions.

Success was found to be linked with a certain measure of confidence, happiness, interest, and energy—combined with suitable methods of training and adequate opportunities for the exercise of ability.

The findings of experimental studies became of more consequence to the schools. They may be summarized as follows:

1. Exclusive emphasis on oral reading is both uneconomical and harmful.
2. Silent reading is used in later life more frequently than oral reading. (Training in the art of study is therefore an essential task for the school.)
3. Some degree of efficiency in silent reading is essential before it is possible to read aloud at sight with fluency and expressiveness.
4. The two processes of oral reading and silent reading are characterized by differences of rate and of eye-movement.
5. Rate of reading varies with the conditions under which reading is done, the kind of material, its difficulty, and the purpose of reading.
6. Rate of reading also varies with the facility with which ideas are apprehended.
7. Oral reading is a valuable means of testing speech-development and extent of vocabulary.
8. Even at the initial stages a combination of oral and silent reading is more effective than exclusive emphasis on either activity alone.
9. Early practice is most successfully organized round simple class-room projects or activities; and at later stages incidental experience is profitably gained by reading for information in connexion with history, geography, and other subjects.
10. With present methods a mental age of six and a half years seems a suitable level at which to begin reading instruction.
11. Phonic, kinaesthetic, and visual approaches have often to be combined and modified according to the interests and aptitudes of the pupils.
12. Phonic training should not, however, be introduced until pupils have begun to notice similarities in word structure.
13. A pupil's technical skill at any level is influenced by his physical, mental, social, and emotional maturity.
14. Encouragement is one of the first needs of a child who has failed to develop normally.
15. In most cases of disability there is a multiplicity of causes, and careful case-study is an essential preliminary to successful treatment.
16. Remedial treatment should be given for brief periods and should not carry with it the association of punishment or separation from companions. (This is one of the arguments in favour of greater flexibility in class-room organization.)
17. Text-books should be adapted to pupils' needs in vocabulary, content, printing, and construction.*

Research is still required on the following topics:

1. The best age-placement of materials of varying degrees of complexity.
2. The reading difficulties of pupils at the secondary school level.
3. Tests of literary appreciation.
4. Factorial analysis of reading ability.
5. Tests of ability to use reading in the solution of problems.
6. Long-term studies of individual learners.

* Readers who are interested in bibliographical references on any of the above topics are invited to communicate with the author through the Editor.

ECONOMICS FOR THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

By A. BERNARD HOLLOWOOD, M.Sc. (Econ.)

FOR many years the science of economics has been under a cloud. While professional economists have been condemned for their apparent inability to solve the major problems that followed the Four Years' War, for their inability to formulate a strict and invariable code of economic laws, and for the vagueness and ambiguity of their terminology, little or no attention has been paid to the vital problem of the place of economics in the national educational system. Up to the present the subject is confined to the universities, adult classes, and the upper forms of some secondary and technical schools. I am not aware that economics has been conceded a place in the curriculum of any training college.

Three reasons are usually advanced in opposition to an extension of the teaching of economics: it is too difficult for students under the age of 16; the subject-matter of economics is political in its implications; the time-table is already overcrowded. This last reason cannot be discussed here. One would merely suggest that the time-table would be improved by the elimination of certain subjects, but to name them and to attempt to prove the case would lengthen this article unduly. The other reasons require more consideration. Economics is difficult only in the application of its principles to specific problems. Fundamentally its groundwork is as simple and logical as the four primary rules of arithmetic or the A B C of English. There should be no difficulty for the normal child of 12–14 years in comprehending these principles. The importance of the subject is only now, in these days of war, revealing itself. On all sides there are examples of economic ignorance embarrassing the government and local authorities and retarding the war effort. In other words a large majority of our citizens are denied complete democratic citizenship because they are denied economic training. Too late, the government is compelled to begin the economic education of the masses with hints on saving, spending, and salvage. A nation schooled in the elements of economics would require no last-minute guidance on matters of national importance. Its members would avoid waste and thoughtless spending as naturally as they observe the traffic code. Education in economics must, moreover, begin early. The student of 16 plus who is beginning a brief course in the subject already has opinions that are beginning to crystallize. These are born of contamination with a hopelessly ignorant environment. The press, the radio, and the home, all contribute to the net result of false preconceived notions, and the first and most difficult task of the teacher of economics is to clear away this mass of misconception. It is not an easy task and (in my own

(*Continued on page 176*)

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experience) not always accomplished. It is like teaching a cockney to speak the King's English. This problem would be eased if teachers were allowed to influence the child in the more impressionable years.

Of the other objection to economics, that its teaching is often political, one must say that it applies with equal force to other subjects already admitted. A biased interpretation of history is, I think, a more potent force in determining political opinion. In fact, it has been observed that training in economics usually results in a critical approach to the proposals of *all* political parties.

Economics is a comprehensive subject touching almost every aspect of communal life. It is compassed about by ethical and political considerations which inevitably lead to discussion of such thorny problems as religion, morality, nationalism, and party politics. Clearly it is not enough to launch an economics course upon the schools without careful analysis of the syllabus.

Some would say that economic knowledge is already provided for, in the primary school, by the occasional lessons in civics. This is not enough. Civics often consists of little more than a cataloguing of the social services and a eulogy of life under democracy.

The agreed syllabus must come from the deliberations of experienced teachers of the subject. Its most important sections might be :

1. Wise spending. Domestic, local, and national. The problem of the allocation of limited resources between rival demands.

2. The subordinate nature of money-value as opposed to ' real ' value, with reference to wages, rent, interest, and capital.

3. Production and Co-operation. Specialized occupations. Division of labour. Location of industry. Foreign trade.

It is, however, not so much in subject-matter as in method of approach that success lies. How often have we heard competent and apparently sensible men express their opinion : " Germany can't win, she hasn't the money." " We ought to buy more beer (or tobacco), it's patriotic." " We are almost bankrupt, the national debt is . . ." " Good, imports are down." " Well, it makes work." It is ignorance such as this that we are up against. It may be that the best syllabus would be one which merely sets out to destroy these harmful misconceptions. Our present economic system is complex. Its imperfections are not obvious. Individual satisfactions mask national calamities. On this score, wars and other dreadful visitations, extravagant behaviour, and luxuries are excused because they make work for many and provide profit for few. If we can only show the child that hospitals are more important than dog-tracks, and new houses more desirable than football pools, we shall have achieved a great deal.

DIES FASTI ET NEFASTI

By FRANCIS MAW

(With indebtedness to the Reports of School Speech-days in *The Times*)

MY Speech-day cuttings from *The Times* for the summer term of 1939 weigh just under one and a half ounces, while those for 1940 fail to turn the scale at half an ounce.

The fourth of June at Eton in 1940 was a domestic festival : " There were naturally no fireworks and no procession of boats, not even one, even without striped shirts and flowered hats. There was no luncheon in Hall, neither did house-masters shed their last drop of salmon and strawberries for starving parents, since the ill wind of rationing had at least blown somebody good." What a depth of meaning there is in the account of the cricket match : " It was cheering, even though he did not get a wicket, to see one bowling for the Ramblers who two days before had been at Dunkirk."

Lord Horder is still ' bothering rather a lot about health '. It is somewhat of a coincidence that he should now be so much in touch with the Ministry of Health in his air-raid shelter policy, for it was in 1939 that he was speaking at the Minister of Health's old school (Malcolm Macdonald was at one time head boy of Bedales) : " I would bother rather a lot about health, not merely because I am a doctor. I would bother about food and about rest—rest above all things for the body and for the mind."

Great interest was shown in the air-raid shelters when Founders' Day was celebrated at Dulwich College towards the end of June 1940 ; these have accommodation for 800 boys.

It is curious that an identical note should have been struck at the Speech-days of two great public schools in 1939. At Shrewsbury, Lord Baldwin said that years ago he had heard an old gentleman telling the boys at his old school that the happiest time of their lives was their school time. He believed that to be a profound piece of bunkum. It was true of some boys—the popular athlete, for instance—but of ordinary boys it was not true. When he and his contemporaries came near to leaving time they felt they wanted to go out into the world to try their wings—full of curious feelings, ideal and otherwise, anxious to play their part, wondering if they could make a mark in the world, wishing and yet ashamed to confess what they were thinking. Sir Thomas Inskip at Clifton did not agree with those who said that school days were the happiest. That ought not to be. Browning's attitude, " Grow old along with me, the best is yet to be ", was much more likely to lead to a happy and useful life.

The Times of July 29, 1940, allotted five inches to the *Dies Fasti* of Malvern, Tonbridge, and the Imperial Service College, Windsor. Lady Sarah Spencer-Churchill, who presented the prizes at Blenheim Palace, said that public schools did not consist of buildings, but of the people in them—a doubly comforting thought for the evacuated Malvern. Mr. E. E. A. Whitworth, Headmaster of Tonbridge School, said that the testing time would come when the war was over. He was one of those who believed that the place which public schools had held in the tradition of education in this country would not disappear. He was equally certain that public schools would be fewer in number. Mr. Justice Wrottesley, Master of the Skinners' Company, who presented the prizes, said that the Skinners' Company were determined to do everything to maintain the independence of Tonbridge School. The Rev. L. de O. Tollemache, the headmaster, presented the prizes at the Speech-day of the Imperial Service College, Windsor. He spoke appreciatively of those members of the Home Guard who had given up a great deal of time and comfort. Many of the boys, too, had done agricultural work and were to be busy in the holidays.

" You must do it at the double ; remember you are with the Navy now." While Princess Margaret was putting in her tree at the Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, the King made this remark to her. In commemoration of this visit on July 23, 1939, the King planted in the college grounds a purple beech tree, the Queen a golden beech tree, Princess Elizabeth a white beam, and Princess Margaret a scarlet chestnut tree. The Queen and the Princesses were making their first acquaintance with the college. This visit was very interestingly illustrated in *The Times* of July 24.

(Continued on page 178)

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From 1911 to 1913 the King was a cadet at Dartmouth and made a brief stay there as a naval lieutenant in 1919. On July 22 the Lord Mayor of London, Sir Frank Bowater, presented the prizes in the training ship *Arethusa*. He referred to the bravery of a former *Arethusa* boy, Petty Officer Smithers, who lost his life in the *Thetis* disaster. Smithers volunteered at great risk, he said, to go into the flooded chamber of the submarine in an effort to close the torpedo tube door. And now again the *Thetis* is in the news, but under a different name.

The following points would surely be applicable beyond 1939: "Merchantmen were the backbone of the British Empire", thus Princess Alice, Countess of Athlone, at the Royal Merchant Navy School, hoping that when the boys and girls went into the world they would remember the proud heritage handed down to them by their parents. Speaking at Queen Bertha's School, Birchington, the Archbishop of Canterbury urged the girls to obtain happiness from the things that last and not in passing fashions; that they should so pass through things temporal as not to lose the things eternal. Mr. Vincent Massey, at Stowe School Speech-day, gave the following description of the English public school: "The public school was never invented, it just grew; so did the Empire, it was not made to order. It took shape almost unconsciously step by step. That was very like British institutions of all kinds. They grew like plants; they were not put together like machines; they were organic, not mechanical. That was why they were so hard to define and still more impossible to foresee. The critics of the public school might be usefully reminded that dictators would never tolerate them." "This place breedeth courage", Walsingham's remark in the presence of his Queen and her Navy at Tilbury, was quoted by the Bishop of Salisbury, Dr. Neville Lovett, at Weymouth College—"the courage to be unselfish and true to a God who was not the private property of any one nation." Lord De La Warr, then President of the Board of Education, speaking at Clayesmore School, referred to a dangerous 'division' in the educational system of the country. He suggested a bridge between the product of the boarding school and that of the secondary or grammar school.

"The process of saving this island all over again would be done, but it would be done at a heavy cost. England would be impoverished and her resources exhausted, but her spirit would live on," said Mr. Charles Roberts at the 1940 Mill Hill Speech-day in its new home at St. Bees; he envisaged a union of States and a peaceful world when once Germany had been overthrown.

At Wellington College, Lord Derby remarked that a lot of music-hall nonsense was talked about the old school tie, but as a matter of fact the school tie was something which did combine a past memory with the present. Wearing that tie was the outward sign of comradeship. We wanted to develop that spirit of comradeship not only in the United Kingdom but also throughout the British Commonwealth.

Mr. F. M. Heywood, the Master of Marlborough College, gave a happy welcome in his speech on Prize-day to his 'evacuees'; he hoped that the City of London School had found their enforced exile as little disturbing and strange as those of the college had found their presence in their midst.

"The great mistake we made in the last war was that we put off until the end of the war any serious thinking about the new world, with the result that mistakes, which we could avoid now, were made." The Bishop of Bristol (Dr. Woodward) made this point when speaking at the Speech-day of Betteshanger School, which had been evacuated to Chipping Sodbury.

Dies nefasti (to some extent at any rate) were held at St. John's School, Leatherhead, Repton, and Harrow. Governors' Speech-day for 1940 took place at Harrow on June 11. The orator alluded to the high offices held by Old Harrovians in the nation's war-time organization, among them Mr. Winston Churchill and Lord Gort, V.C.

Fasti enim dies festi sunt, Paul. ex Fest.

THE MAN IN THE TRAIN

By FREDERIC EVANS

I JUST managed to catch the train out of Swansea for Neath after a rather tiring day in the Tawe Valley inspecting one of the schools there. Though I always liked the Tawe Valley people, the drizzle of rain—characteristic of South Wales—had made the day more exhausting than usual.

In the corner sat a well-fed, well-groomed man of about 50. He had two pigskin cases such as I had often wished to possess. He leaned back in his seat and puffed at a luxurious cigar as he read the evening paper.

The train started. He put down his paper and contemplated me.

"Had a good day?" he asked pleasantly.

"As good as could be expected in such weather," I replied.

"I find the rain helps—fewer customers in the shops. The shopkeepers are then more inclined to attend to the samples. What is your line, by the way?" he asked.

He evidently thought I was a gentleman of the road, a commercial traveller.

"Education," I replied somewhat tritely.

"Ah, books . . . not much in a big way in them," he said.

"I am an Inspector of Schools——" I began.

"I thought I could not place you on the road," he said. "Inspector of Schools, eh? . . . little use the schools are to the country, I'm afraid. We spend too much money on education these days . . . we——"

I felt it was time to put in a word for our much criticized and much misunderstood schools.

"Come now, it's not so bad as all that," I protested.

"It is, and worse," he said. I could see he was on one of his pet themes. "In fact, education—such as the schools give nowadays—is a definite drawback to success in life. I never had much schooling, and I've done pretty well—pretty well."

"I am sure you have," I began politely.

"I can prove it better from the experience of one of my best customers," he went on.

"I am sure I should like to hear this proof—if proof it be," I replied.

"This is the story," he began. "My friend Robinson about twelve years ago was down and out, when he heard that at a certain parish church they wanted a sexton. He was a hefty fellow and he knew he could do the work. So he applied to the vicar for the job. The vicar liked his size and his downright way of speaking. You see, like me, he came from the North. After a chat, the vicar said he could have the job, but that, in addition to the digging of the graves, he would have to keep the records of the burials in the register. 'Sorry, sir,' said Robinson, 'but I can't read nor write.' 'Dear me!' replied the vicar. 'No wonder you are up against it; must have education, you know, to get on in this world. I'm afraid you won't do for us; we must have a man who can keep the records properly.'

(Continued on page 180

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" Robinson appeared so downcast that the vicar gave him ten shillings and, wishing him luck, sent him on his way.

" With this ten shillings, Robinson bought a crop of potatoes in the ground of a cottage garden. These he sold by hawking around the streets of a small town. He bought more potatoes—and then hired a horse and cart. The business thrived, and, to cut a long story short, he became in ten years the wealthiest wholesaler of greengrocery in the North of England. He was worth a million."

I murmured my admiration of this achievement.

My friend went on, " Then he decided it was time to retire, and so he asked his solicitors to convert the business into a limited company with a managing director in charge. When all the documents were ready the solicitor brought them to Robinson's country house.

" ' Will you please sign there ? ' asked the lawyer.

" ' Sign,' said Robinson. ' I will put my mark there only. I can't read nor write.'

" ' Heavens ! ' cried the astonished solicitor. ' Can't read or write—you a millionaire. . . . I can't believe it ! '

" ' It's true all right,' said Robinson.

" ' Well, well,' said the lawyer, ' what *would* you have become if you had been *able* to read and write ? '

" ' I should have become a sexton,' replied the millionaire.

" There," said my acquaintance, as he leaned back triumphantly in the carriage, " does not that prove that education is unnecessary for success ? Put that in your pipe and smoke it, Mr. Inspector."

I thought hard. He clearly believed the practical man of the world had confounded my academical mind. I almost agreed with him for a moment. The train had passed through Landore and I had to think quickly if I was to get in my counter argument before I left him at Neath. Then I said :

" Answer me these questions honestly and plainly. Did Robinson use a clerical staff in his business ? "

" Yes, of course—private secretary as well," replied the critic.

" And railways, telephones, road transport and things like that ? "

" Obviously," he said.

" Did he employ a doctor when he was sick and accountants when he wished to dodge the Income Tax ? "

" Even a business man must have medical attention and help of that sort," replied my friend.

" Everything he used, every one who served him used his education to make this possible," I argued. " The railways could not be built, the bridges designed, the letters written, the accounts kept, the sick healed, without educated men and women. Robinson was in fact a parasite upon the labour of people who had educated themselves to assist in the complete working of the society of which they were members."

" There's something in what you say—perhaps—— " he said dubiously, evidently disconcerted with the way the argument which had appeared so crushing and final to him had been turned against him.

" I am not denying Robinson's grit and intelligence," I went on, " nor his business sense ; all I am saying is that he got his opportunity to blossom forth into big business through the fact that others were educated, not because he himself was not." That was the best I could do.

The train drew up at Neath. I collected my dispatch case from the rack, wished him good-night and stepped out on to the platform. He put his head out of the window. The train began to move slowly. He shouted out against the noise of the engine this Parthian shaft.

" I don't care what you say—but if Robinson had been able to read and write he'd be a sexton to-day and not a millionaire."

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

By DR. C. EBBLEWHITE SMITH, Associate Professor of Education, University of Manitoba
(formerly Lecturer at the University of London Institute of Education)

EVER since the use of correlation coefficients has become known among educationists and others, it has been found necessary to issue warnings from time to time about their misinterpretation ; but these warnings have often failed to reach the eyes of those for whom they were primarily intended. It may, therefore, be of some use again to draw attention to some common misconceptions which have arisen in regard to the use of correlation coefficients in dealing with the marks of examiners.

As is generally known, a ' perfect ' correlation between two sets of results is expressed by unity. A correlation coefficient of, say, 0·984 between the marks of different examiners for the same scripts may well be supposed, therefore, to indicate that the agreement between the examiners is all that could reasonably be desired. But an example given in a pamphlet issued by one of the School Certificate Examination authorities in 1936, on which my opinion was asked by a layman, shows how erroneous such a conclusion would be. The results of the preliminary and independent marks and awards given to six History scripts by 33 examiners were stated as follows :

Script	*Distinction*	*Credit*	*Pass*	*Fail*
A ..	25	8	0	0
B ..	1	29	3	0
C ..	0	24	8	1
D ..	33	0	0	0
E ..	4	28	1	0
F ..	0	0	20	13

The actual marks were unfortunately not given, but it was reported that the average of the coefficients of rank correlation between the marks of the thirty-three examiners and those of the Chief Examiner was + 0·984. Yet, although this is a high correlation, it tells us very little indeed about the examination as a whole.

In dealing with marks assigned to so small a number of scripts as six, information given by the method of correlation coefficients can never be other than small, and it is reduced in this particular case still further by the fact that one of the six scripts (Script A) had obviously been chosen as exceptionally good, and a second (Script F) as exceptionally poor, and they were thus likely to be placed first and last by most of the examiners. No examiner gave Script A a mark as low as a bare pass, and none gave Script F even a credit. It is further to be remembered that it is far easier for an examiner to place four particular scripts in order of merit when he is considering them alone than when they are scattered among some 500 scripts. Thus, in the instance chosen, the rank correlation coefficients between the marks of the different examiners may be expected to be high, but they have little or no significance of any practical value. The facts as presented in the pamphlet are indeed sufficient to demonstrate this fact.

I now come to another point of importance. With perfect rank correlation (P = 1) between examiners, it is possible to get very large variations in marks awarded by them to the same script. For example, taking marks below 33 per cent as fail, 33 per cent to 50 per cent as pass, 50 per cent to 66 per cent as credit, and 66 per cent to 100 per cent as distinction, then, taking the marks given above, two

(*Continued on page* 184)

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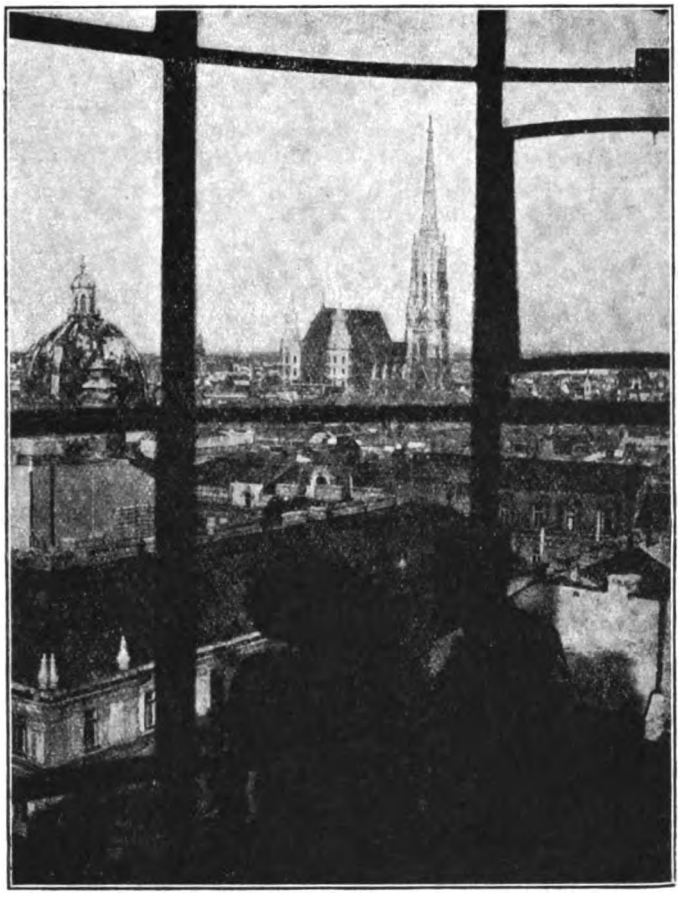

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examiners may award (the case is hypothetical) the following marks for the same scripts, of which the rank correlation is perfect (P=1):

Script	*Examiner 1*	*Examiner 2*
A ..	90 Dist.	58 Credit
B ..	76 Dist.	43 Pass
C ..	65 Credit	28 Fail
D ..	95 Dist.	68 Dist.
E ..	84 Dist.	44 Pass
F ..	49 Pass	19 Fail

Nevertheless, there is an average difference of over thirty marks between two examiners. In no instance do they award the same mark, and only one candidate is placed in the same category by both examiners. It is, of course, obvious that here the averages of these two sets of marks (76·5 and 43·7) differ widely.

Let us now take two sets, also with a correlation coefficient of one, but this time with the same average, 59·6:

Script	*Examiner 1*	*Examiner 2*
A ..	64 Credit	84 Dist.
B ..	56 Credit	48 Pass
C ..	52 Credit	29 Fail
D ..	70 Dist.	95 Dist.
E ..	60 Credit	64 Credit
F ..	46 Pass	28 Fail

Here, although the averages of the six marks awarded by each examiner are the same, and the rank correlation is perfect, there is an average difference between the marks awarded to the same script of over sixteen marks. In no case do examiners give the same mark to a script, and only in two cases are the scripts placed in the same category by both examiners.

Some idea of the "value" of a correlation coefficient may be deduced from the following figures:

In an examination where 20 per cent of the candidates fail and the correlation coefficient derived from correlating the marks awarded by two examiners to the same set of scripts is + 0·95, then it is to be expected that about 7 per cent of the candidates will be "failed" by one examiner and "passed" by the other. It will be admitted that, in dealing with large numbers of scripts, it is rare for correlations between examiners to reach so high a value as ·95, and in many examinations the percentage of failures is higher than twenty, so that the element of chance in most examinations affects far more than 7 per cent of the candidates.

It may be suggested further that, if examining bodies wish to assure us of the consistency of the marking of different examiners and of the elimination of chance in the marking, they must give us much more information than that yielded by a statement of rank-correlation coefficients derived from the marking of a small number of scripts.

LIBRARY DEVELOPMENT IN LONDON AND THE HOME COUNTIES

By L. MONTAGUE HARROD, Hon. Secretary, The Library Association, London and Home Counties Branch

LIBRARIES are of great importance to the educationist and to the student. For the majority of people the public library is the only means of obtaining knowledge once they have left school. It is therefore of interest to educationists as well as of value to the librarian to know to what extent public libraries have developed in recent years. Since 1924 the London and Home Counties Branch of the Library Association has issued four quinquennial reports on the library service in London and ten counties surrounding it. The last report,* which has just been issued, shows in a very brief introductory survey of the past fifteen years that the library service in the London and Home Counties area has reached nearly twice as many people; it issues over 3½ times as many books; it provides more than 2½ times as many books; and over 3½ times as many persons are registered readers. It may be assumed that this amazing progress is not confined to the part of the country covered by the report, but is typical of library development throughout England.

Since 1933–4 there has been an increase of 901,576 or 7·47 per cent in the population served: the total now stands at 12,958,122. The number of books issued in 1938–9 was 76,104,134, an increase of 19,198,958 or 33·7 per cent over 1933–4. The number of persons now registered for home reading is 2,421,320, an increase of 463,335 or 23·6 per cent; and the stock of books available is now 8,475,378, an increase of 1,937,548 or 29·6 per cent.

Books are the stock-in-trade of a library. Unless there is a constant flow of good books to the shelves of a library, its users will begin to look elsewhere for their reading matter. The committees responsible for libraries, however, are not always prepared to make extra allocations for the purchase of new books unless they know that there is an increasing demand for them. This is probably the reason for the percentage increase in new books added to the municipal libraries of the area being only 22·5 per cent higher (from 5,541,574 in 1933–4 to 6,788,522 in 1938–9) whereas the books lent for home reading have increased by 30·2 per cent. The total number of books used in 1938–9 was 61,616,499, which is an increase over the figures for 1933–4 of 14,153,213 or 29·6 per cent.

More people are reading than was the case five years ago (although the population has increased only 5·4 per cent in the municipal areas, registered membership of libraries has increased 17·3 per cent) and they are reading much more than they did then.

During the five years covered by the report, 47 new library buildings have been erected and 29 additional delivery stations have been opened. There is a very much greater proportion of delivery stations than new libraries to the whole number of service points, which seems to suggest that when the period covered by the report closed there were a number of temporary or experimental service points in operation. Owing to the outbreak of war it must be anticipated that these delivery stations must remain in operation until after the war.

Considerable developments have taken place in the provision of books for children since the last war, when there were comparatively few adequate children's departments in public libraries. There has been a steady increase since 1924, when there were only 265,887 volumes available. Now there are 767,748, of which 15,950 are for reference only. The following table shows the distribution of this stock:

Volumes	1939	1934	1929	1924
Under 1,000 ..	2	5	4	7
1,000–5,000 ..	32	34	30	34
5,000–10,000 ..	32	23	17	13
Over 10,000 ..	26	17	12	7

Of 102 libraries in the area, 95 reported that they make some kind of provision for children; of these, 82 have separate departments consisting of usually one room and a reference library. In about half these libraries special staffs

(*Continued on page* 186)

* **Report on the Municipal Library System of London and the Home Counties, 1939.** Free to members of the Branch. Price 1s. 3d. post free to others; obtainable from the Hon. Secretary, Central Library, 68 Holloway Road, Islington, N. 7.

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are employed and in some of them special qualifications are asked for. These include ability to give story hours and talks, and a knowledge of children's books and child psychology. In a number of libraries various forms of 'extension' activities are arranged to connect children's interests with books. These include reading-circles, stamp clubs, dramatic clubs, competitions, and exhibitions. Children's librarians visit heads of schools in order to keep in touch with the staff and talk to the pupils about books. Talks to 'school-leavers' are arranged and jackets of new books are displayed. Ten libraries have some kind of organized provision for adolescents, in the form of either a special collection of books set on one side in the adult or children's library, or a special department for the use of these young people. In few public libraries are books provided for children except in the children's departments, but in 14 systems, school library schemes are in operation. The total number of books in these libraries is 114,760, which is an increase of 27,440 over 1933–4. Just over 11 million books were issued to children in 1938–9—10,074,619 from the children's departments, and 940,567 from school library systems.

In the modern community the public library is the clearing-house for information and the coordinator of educational activities. Small collections of books are set aside in the library or sent to another centre for the exclusive use of students attending university or Workers' Educational Association classes. More than half the libraries reporting have accommodation which they offer these and similar organizations. Very often no fees are charged, but, where they are, they are usually nominal. Many libraries themselves organize educational activities of more general appeal such as lectures, musical evenings, and film shows; others arrange library clubs, language clubs, wireless discussion groups, and play-readings.

Owing to the difference in the nature of the county library systems it is not possible for activities such as those just described to be organized except in the larger branch libraries in urban areas. The primary function of providing books absorbs a larger proportion of the energies of the staffs, not that they would not indulge in these activities if conditions made it possible.

The counties included in this report are Bedfordshire, Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, Essex, Hertfordshire, Kent, Middlesex, Surrey, East and West Sussex. They have a population for library purposes of 3,802,806 (an increase of 12·5 per cent over 1933–4) and spend £147,902 on their libraries: this works out at 7¼d. per head of population. Of this sum £47,653, or 32 per cent of the total is spent on books. The stock of the county libraries is now 1,686,856, which is an increase of 690,560 over the total for 1933–4, and provides 44 books per 100 of population. Registered readers total 724,847 in nine libraries (figures for the tenth were not available). This represents 20·9 per cent of the population served in the nine counties, an increase of ·2 over the figure for 1933–4. The issue of books for the ten counties totalled 14,487,635, as compared with 9,441,890 for the year 1933–4. This gives an average issue per reader of 20 books a year.

Children's libraries, or collections of children's books, are provided at a number of the new branch libraries: in the centres, children are well provided for owing to the facts that the county library systems form a part of the education department, and that the centres are housed in the elementary schools. School libraries are not provided.

All the county libraries serve the Workers' Educational Association classes and other adult educational organizations, generally by loans of bulk collections for the whole session; in one county as many as 83 adult education classes are supplied in this way. The service to students is augmented in all but two county libraries by the supply of books to readers direct through a postal service. One library reports issuing over 60,000 books in this way, and another nearly 50,000.

AN EXPERIMENT IN COLLABORATION

By A. G. SCRIVENZ, Head of Shoreditch Training College

AN interesting experiment was carried out during the week ending April 4 at Shoreditch Training College. The whole week was spent in the examination of the problems of post-war education. The experiment grew out of J. B. Priestley's last postscript in which frank discussion of the problems which will have to be faced in the world of to-morrow was advocated as the most urgent need of the moment for all serious-minded people.

The general topic of the week's papers and discussions was "Ideals and Practice in Post-War Education". Two sessions were held each day, the first from 9.30 to 11 a.m. being devoted to papers by staff and students, and the second from 11.15 to 12.30 to discussions on the problems raised by the papers. Each session was under the chairmanship of one of the students, and each group of students was represented both in taking the chair and also in the discussions. The afternoons of each day were spent in preparation for the following day's topics, and for this purpose two reading-rooms were set out with relevant material. This was not the least valuable part of the experiment. Publishers had been asked to cooperate, and students were able to see and use copies of the *Oxford Pamphlets on World Affairs*, the Cambridge series *Current Problems*, the Sheldon Press *Christian News Letter Books*, the "Searchlight Books", Longmans' "British Life and Thought" books, Macmillans' *War Pamphlets*, and a selection of the most recent "Pelican" books. Files of *The Times Educational Supplement*, *The Journal of Education*, and *The New Era in Education* were also in use, and magazine articles, Board of Education circulars, and Association of Boys' Clubs publications were in demand.

The first topic to be discussed was "Democracy, its Ideals and Demands". Two contrasted English views were presented in two papers, the first discussing the realist view of Mr. Alderton Pink and the second analysing the challenge to democracy as C. Delisle Burns sees it. These papers were followed by a picture of the contemporary Nazi school system and the defence of its underlying philosophy from the Nazi point of view. A most lively discussion followed in the second session of the day, and after the formal adjournment of the session an informal discussion was held in the afternoon at the students' request, when the problems were again talked over for an hour and a half.

The second day's sessions developed the topic, "The Ideals of Educational Reconstruction". The ideals and suggestions of the Spens Report were the charge of the first speaker; the growing concern for reconstruction and the formulation of ideals, which are so noticeable a feature of the educational journals of the past three months, came next; and the third paper of the day was a tutor's attempt to picture post-war education and estimate the results of the tremendous experiences of to-day. The discussions that followed were significant in that students were anxious to formulate their own ideals for the education of the future, and to bring other people's suggestions to the touchstone of their own experience, limited though it be, rather than to accept ready-made opinions from others whose world was possibly far removed from their own. It is perhaps significant that a suggestion from a young idealist that

(*Continued on page* 188)

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education should be continued to the age of 21, and that every man should obtain his education in a variety of schools, of varying grades and bias, and set in varying districts—urban, rural, industrial, sea-side—captured the imagination of the whole company, and received full discussion throughout the sessions of the week.

The Training College problem was next discussed. Pictures of the colleges of a generation ago were given to provide an historical background for a discussion; a vivid picture of personal experience of a university teachers' training department was given by one of the tutors; while a third paper presented the various criticisms of the present training college system that have been offered since the January Conference of the National Students' Union. Discussions were again full of interest. Two dangers inherent in the training college system were noted time after time—the danger of unreality which is bound up with the preparation of a young man at so early an age for a career that can be successful only if he has some knowledge of and contact with the world of business and industry, and the danger of looking at our teacher problems through an academic study of psychology rather than being able to live alongside little children from whom we might learn the deep truths of education.

"Youth Service and the Teacher" was the subject of Thursday's work, and a series of five short papers covered past achievements, present difficulties, and future possibilities. A tutor first gave a picture of the inception of three boys' clubs in which he had played an important part. One of the students followed with his experiences first in scouting, then as a leader in a boys' club, and finally in youth organization work in his home district. A short paper on Circular 1529 was followed by a statement of the scope of the new Air Training Corps especially as it has developed in Shoreditch and in our own building. The last paper presented the work in the provinces during the past three months with special reference to the Suffolk experiment. The following discussions showed that most of the students have appreciated the urgency of this appeal for teacher service, and indeed the College has its own scheme for its own boys' club which shall serve both the lads of the district and provide training of this vital kind for our young teachers.

The concluding topic of the week was "The Schools of To-morrow". The problem of the extra year was discussed with special reference to the Chesterfield experiment; the American view of educating for democracy and the practice evolved in America were compared with our own systems; the future of craft teaching in the schools was a topic relevant to the advanced work which Shoreditch does in this direction; while the last speaker discussed the views of Herbert Read in his pamphlet, *To Hell with Culture*.

The week's conferences were highly successful. Problems vital to the work of us all as teachers have been lifted out of the lecture-room and presented as the personal concern of each thinking man; valuable experience in public speaking and procedure has been obtained; books, pamphlets, and articles have been used, and students have been introduced to the important contributions of the Press at the present moment; and, perhaps most important of all, staff and students have contributed to and benefited by a common pool of reading, experience, ideas, and ideals which will be of lasting benefit.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SIR,—The discussion on the public schools, as Mr. Unmack found, has become so extensive that those who now wish to join in are obliged by lack of space to make many debatable assumptions. In this case the assumptions are:

1. That boarding public schools of the £100 to £200 per annum type are worth saving.
2. That this will necessitate aid from public funds, involving a wider basis of recruitment.
3. That this wider recruitment is, in any case, desirable, and no effort should be spared to make the reinforced schools as efficient and harmonious as possible.

I only propose to discuss these last two points, efficiency and harmony.

EFFICIENCY

The efficiency of a school depends largely on its teaching staff. Public schools, however, are almost entirely staffed by amateurs who have had no professional training and know little of the theory of teaching or learning. The ablest (excluding those rare birds, the 'born teachers') can teach able boys efficiently, and less able boys fairly so. The less able amateurs teach no one efficiently, and their class-room influence is often small. The least able generally conceal their inefficiency beneath a rigid uneducational technique which does positive harm, especially to able boys. If the public schools are to assume the responsibility of training an *élite* drawn from all sections of the community, only the best teachers will be good enough. A good honours degree and a year's post-graduate teaching course should be the normal qualification, with subsequent attendance at holiday courses when taking up fresh subjects or reviving old ones. One way of ensuring this would be to establish two scales of pay for new-comers, one for those with professional qualifications and a lower one for those without. This should improve the prestige of the profession by discouraging half-hearted entrants.

HARMONY

Harmony in the schools will depend as much on the relations of the masters with their boys as on the relations of the boys with one another. The masters' professional training, which will have included a practical study of the national system of education, together with its social and economic background, should enable them to welcome without embarrassment or reserve all who are entrusted to their care. The attitude of present public schoolboys to the new recruits will not be ungenerous, but the two groups will be shy of one another, and it will take more than the tact of enlightened masters to produce harmony. This half of the problem can be tackled at once, by providing practical courses in citizenship for as many boys as possible. Excellent up-to-date text-books exist, such as *The A B C of Local Government* or *Citizenship through the Newspaper*. This book knowledge can soon be made alive through visits to the Assizes, Quarter or Petty Sessions, County Council or County Borough meetings, newspaper offices, art, technical, or senior schools, A.R.P. Control Centres, &c., and by inviting such people as probation officers, police superintendents, sanitary inspectors, and billeting officers to talk about their work. The local weekly newspaper will become increasingly interesting and will often suggest new subjects for study and discussion. Before long the boys may well discover and wish to develop new ways of assisting in the local war effort. Much can thus be done to bring the hitherto isolated public school into closer contact with its neighbourhood, to dispel wrong ideas of class-distinction and privilege, and to establish a healthier social outlook among the boys.

The professional training of public school masters must inevitably be postponed until after the war, but the elementary training of boys in citizenship outlined above can be given more efficiently in war than in peace time. All that is needed on the part of the teacher is a little imagination

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and initiative. The willingness of busy officials and organizers to co-operate may surprise him: it will certainly prove a great encouragement both to him and to his pupils.

E. H. N. W.

SIR,—The two articles in your April number, by Professor Clarke and the Warden of Radley, exemplify strikingly the two sides of the problem of education in the modern world.

Professor Clarke writes of the "demand for something much more specific and *professional*; for a training that has in view well-organized and usable knowledge focused upon the demands of a professional function in an increasingly technical order. The demand will grow in emphasis and the old 'leisure' . . . will tend to disappear."

The Warden of Radley looks forward to a curriculum based on the study of the Bible, enabling us "to understand the origins and meanings of our civilization . . . and to think about fundamental things".

The former is clearly thinking mainly how to prepare the pupil to fill a useful place in a highly-organized society; the latter, how to develop his capacities as a fully rational and free individual.

The question between them is of course largely one of emphasis. The possessor of "the necessary technical knowledge" needs something more to be a satisfactory human being, or even to be a useful member of organized society. The power "to think about fundamental things" will not, by itself, keep the machinery of society and industry running, nor provide a livelihood for the individual.

It is possible that the public schools in the past have thought too exclusively of the latter ideal, and that the tendency of their critics, and of the newer schools, is to swing too far in the opposite direction. We cannot afford to be governed by leisured amateurs; but still less (as recent events have shown) can we allow power to pass into the hands of technically efficient persons incapable of "thinking about fundamental things".

R. KENNARD DAVIS.

Magdalen College School,
Oxford.

PUBLIC AND PREPARATORY SCHOOLMASTERS IN CONFERENCE

SIR,—From April 7 to April 9 a representative body of public and preparatory schoolmasters held its third annual conference. Some of us arrived, I think, with the feeling that the times had got rather beyond us, and that there would be little which could be usefully discussed. We were wrong; the discussions could with profit have lasted to the end of the week. Others were convinced, indeed, that important changes were close at hand, but viewed such changes with anxiety and foreboding. These were authoritatively told that the value of our system was fully recognized, and were sent away in great measure comforted. Many were ignorant, dubious, or frankly despairing of the Board of Education's present and future attitude toward us; they were bidden to be of good cheer and were assured of a sympathetic and generous co-operation.

A summary of the resolutions passed appears, I believe, elsewhere in the Press. But I should like here to deal with the particular belief expressed by us that our system of boarding schools provides a very valuable environment for the development of religious education, and I am convinced that what is expressed and implied in the two following observations is of vital importance if we are to make good that boast.

(i) We listened to an exhortation by the Bishop of Oxford that we should subordinate the teaching of Christian ethics to the teaching of Christian doctrine, and that we should be prepared equally to subordinate our own systems of worship to a closer co-operation with the parish church as a social focus. Most of us, I assume, would not question the desirability of such a change if it would point the way to a truly Christian society, beyond remarking that an inspired leadership in ethics, plus an inspired conduct of communal worship in a school chapel, has led many at least as far along the road to the integration of a Christian character as has an uninspired exposition of doctrine, plus an equally uninspired conduct of communal worship in a parish church.

Some few of us (myself among them) had also the opportunity of hearing a short and sharp tirade directed by the Headmaster of Felsted against those who attempt the teaching of doctrine not without earnestness and conviction, but without knowledge of their subject. Though this begs, I think, the question, let us not for the moment attempt a defence. Let us by all means put our house in order, and let us place ourselves under competent instruction so that we may be qualified for this important task.

(ii) I do not believe that the world can any longer blind itself to the vast importance of an understanding of psychology. This science, after a story of patient research which would surprise many of its detractors, has emerged from its infant stage, and is now crying aloud for fuller recognition. True, it is still rent by schisms, but the Hormic or Conative psychology is, I think, gradually establishing its claims to supremacy. The tenets of this school represent far more than an analysis of function and behaviour; they are nothing less than a reasoned exposition of the whole life of man. They pretend to no esoteric mystery; they are established on a comprehensive basis which admits of a variety of independent methods in the treatment of practical educational problems. Lastly, at no point do they conflict with religion; rather do they enrich it. Any opinion still prevailing to the contrary is usually, I think, due to a failure to recognize that one of the main functions of Hormic psychology is to explain how a character can be so integrated as to direct itself to the loftiest possible ideal. It should be part of the function of the Church to present the Christian religion in such a way as to make fullest use of this explanation. As a corollary, if members of the teaching profession are to be trained in the expounding of doctrine, let the clergy on their part consent to undergo fuller training in the principles and applications of modern psychology.

Upon a liaison between (i) and (ii) above depends, I submit, a fine opportunity, educationally and socially, for Christianity in the future. There remains much that will still be controversial, and there will be grave difficulties still to be faced.

T. F. POWELL.

Hill Crest, Penrhyndeudraeth,
N. Wales.

FOUR LATIN AUTHORS

SIR,—In a friendly notice of my *Four Latin Authors* in the March *Journal of Education*, your reviewer suggests that I am wrong in saying that "*patria* can have its first *a* either long or short", and asked if I mean that "it sometimes sounds like the *a* in *mater*". I will not venture to say how it was *sounded*, but three well-known quotations from Latin poets will perhaps suffice to show that it was certainly sometimes *scanned* long. The first instance is an adjective.

tu patria nobis
suppeditas praecepta. Lucretius III, 9.
quaerit patria Caesarem. Horace, Odes IV, 5, 16.
Umbria Romani patria Callimachi.
Propertius, I, 4 (5), 64.

However, I admit that the first *a* is probably always short in Vergil and Ovid, so perhaps it was not a good example to choose for this book.

E. C. KENNEDY.

Malvern College.

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ENTENTE LITTERAIRE—A PLEA FOR COMPARATIVE TREATMENT

SIR,—The present moment would surely appear to be an appropriate time for a general revision of teaching aims and practice amongst those of the profession still grappling in schools with the problem of 'teaching literature'. Perhaps it is inaccurate to speak of literature as being 'taught', for the best a teacher can hope to accomplish is to teach systematically and thoroughly the principles of literary appreciation and the history of literature, confidently, leaving the rest to the charm and skill of the writers whose works are being studied.

It is particularly the second aspect of this teaching—systematic instruction in the history of literature—which, despite its obvious importance, appears to have been sadly neglected in schools, as all that seems necessary, even at Intermediate B.A. stage, is a very sketchy knowledge of the history of a particular literature, combined with a judicious forecast of possible questions and an average amount of luck.

The limits imposed on such a study by examination requirements are too well known and too much lamented by teachers to need any comment, but it must be clear to all that in literature we possess a most powerful ally in our struggle to bring about in the post-war world that international goodwill which is so singularly lacking in our own generation, and can come about only through an intimate knowledge and appreciation of the genius of countries other than our own. If this ally is neglected, then the road towards mutual understanding will be so much the longer, for the mind and the soul of a people are revealed most deeply and clearly in its best literature.

This teaching to appreciate the works of foreign authors, and through them the spirit of their mother-country, is being carried on to-day with considerable success in schools throughout Britain, but it is not sufficient to know the works of certain foreign authors, to understand through them their particular historical environment, or even to be intimate with the details and background of the various 'periods' of one particular literature. Good as such studies are in themselves, they are infinitely less valuable than a more general view of the foreign literature as a whole and in its *historical relationship* to our own. The method in use to-day has the advantage of concentrating attention on the high-lights, of giving a clear and vivid impression of one aspect, at one selected time in history, of the *génie* (there is no other word) of a people. Unfortunately, it focuses but little attention on the wider issue—that of tracing step by step the development of two intensely national literatures both of which, advancing side by side, have been directed, by individuals or by social or political events, into widely differing channels. The student is thus led away from the connexion existing between the two; he fails to grasp the importance of the fact that literature is the recorded reflection of the phases of national development or retrogression, and that the truly great books, as well as being the truest reproduction of the national temperament, are closely related to one other, though they may occur in different literatures and at widely separated moments in history.

For my own part, I will confess that it was several years after matriculating that I began to perceive that France and Germany each possessed a great national literature comparable to our own in its unbroken but ever-changing development. On leaving school, I was intimate with many of the great works of our best writers. I had a fair, if somewhat haphazard idea of the steady growth of English literature, but for me the literature of France began and ended with the Romantic Period, which I was quite unable to bring into line with the history and literature of England at that time.

This segregation of the two literatures did not in the least detract from my appreciation and enjoyment of the artistry of the great writers of each, but I was given little guidance in linking the two, and the social and political backgrounds had no significant relationship for me.

I do not blame my teachers for this. The limits of the examination syllabus were too wide for them to attempt more than the imparting of a deep love for the two literatures, too narrow to give me that comprehensive view which I believe is a necessity if the nations are to understand and sympathize with the struggles, the failures, and the triumphs of their neighbours.

In this literary insularity there exists a bar to friendship between the nations of Europe. Knowing only our own literature, and perhaps only selected selections of that, it would seem impossible for us to study those markedly national characteristics of mind and spirit which nowhere show so clearly as in the literature of a people. Only if we can obtain a wide view of our own literature and that of our friends, noting the points of comparison or contrast between them along the line of their development, linking the historical backgrounds which produced a certain type of literature in each country, studying the men who have influenced thought and letters—only if we can achieve this in our schools can we hope after the war for a mutual understanding, and for a common tolerance of the other fellow's peculiarities, among the men and women of the New Europe.

Such a task is worthy of our best efforts. Its successful achievement will mean the partial destruction of our insular attitude of superiority—a characteristic which is as difficult for the foreigner to appreciate properly as it is for us to understand the apparent paradoxes of our continental neighbours. This will, I think, be the essential contribution of language teachers to the post-war reconstruction of Europe, not the least valuable nor the least appreciated by those who will benefit both spiritually and materially through their labour.

D. BARNES.

154 Bispham Road,
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EVACUATION EXPENDITURE

SIR,—Just over a year has passed since the Davidson Committee communicated to the local education authorities their report on the problems of adjusting evacuation expenditure between the authorities.

The members of the Davidson Committee recognized that their recommendations might need reconsideration in the light of new developments. The occupation of France saw the beginnings of attacks on the civil population of our great cities which, together with evacuation of coast areas and re-evacuation of children originally received there, has scattered the child population of the country in so haphazard a manner as to warrant the application of a different term from 'evacuation' as used at the end of 1939 and as understood by the committee. Every one of the classes into which it divided evacuees now overlaps every other, while the effects of child migration on neutral areas can no longer reasonably be glossed over and commended to the benevolent notice of the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

The adoption of a simple agreed formula between the authorities would eliminate an enormous extra burden of clerical work both for the schools and for the offices of education authorities, could hardly give a less satisfactory final figure of adjustment at the end, and might possibly point the road to be followed in tackling the solution of more far-reaching financial problems after the war.

The formula I had in mind, which might perhaps at least form a basis for discussion, and the application of which would deal with most heads of expenditure, can be expressed very briefly as an amount to be contributed to, or withdrawn from, a central pool, governed by the following formula:

$$\frac{K}{4}\left\{\frac{\Sigma A^{6\cdot41}}{\Sigma A^{6\cdot39}} A^{6\cdot39} \sim A^{6\cdot41}\right\}$$

K is the annual agreed capitation grant, payable by one

(*Continued on page* 194)

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authority to another under an agreement for financial readjustment. The formula envisages quarterly settlement, and $\frac{K}{4}$ is therefore taken as the factorial.

$A^{6\cdot41}$ is the quarterly figure (for the quarter ending June 30, 1941) of the numbers on the books of all elementary schools in Authority 'A'. $A^{6\cdot39}$ is the corresponding figure for the last normal quarter before the war, the quarter ending June 30, 1939. The range of the Σ is the full number of education authorities for England and Wales.

As will be seen, the $\frac{\Sigma A^{6\cdot41}}{\Sigma A^{6\cdot39}}$ factor takes into consideration the change in total school population since June, 1939. The areas for whom the first expression, namely $\frac{\Sigma A^{6\cdot41}}{\Sigma A^{6\cdot39}} \cdot A^{6\cdot39}$, is greater than the second will naturally be contributors to the central pool; those in the opposite case will receive from it.

All the figures needed—apart from the capitation figure which will in any case have to be agreed upon under any scheme—are immediately available from the ordinary school returns, and the amount of each authority's contribution to, or withdrawal from, the central pool would be a matter of a few hours' work for one official at the education office and would involve no extra clerical work whatever from the schools.

Holy Trinity School, Guildford. D. C. GOODSON.

YOUTH CENTRES AND RAMBLING

SIR,—In most countries and local government units Youth Committees have been formed under the control of the Board of Education. The main business of these committees is to meet the recreational needs of adolescent youth. Generally their activities are directed to the provision of games and club equipment, by means of grants from central funds, either for existing clubs or by opening Youth Centres.

After a Youth Leaders' training course recently held at Cambridge, the Central Council of Recreative Physical Training agreed to bring rambling as a means of recreation, which could be usefully included in youth centre activities, to the notice of those attending the course. Now the Ramblers' Association of Great Britain has promised to advise (on request) those interested in the formation of rambling groups. Its fifteen district Ramblers' Federations and club officials however, with their wide local knowledge, are quite willing and able to give further assistance, such as providing leaders for pioneer rambles, advising as to routes, transport, &c.

One County Committee has already invited the Ramblers' Association to nominate representatives to join it, and Federations may have been approached direct. Such representation would naturally help both the Youth Committee and the Federation. With the approach of spring and lengthening days rambling will become possible to many who have had to discontinue temporarily, and it will be a real service if encouragement can be given toward a greater knowledge and love of the countryside in the best of all ways, by walking in it, among those for whom the Youth Committee are working.

A. W. HEWITT.

Hollybank, Row of Trees, Alderley Edge, Manchester.

EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

FRANCE—THE NEW EDUCATION

IN several previous articles I have sketched plans of Vichy's schemes for education. I have tried to show that the Government, bent on collaboration with Germany, was even prepared to discipline French children along German lines. Education was recast. History was retaught along nationalistic lines far removed from the truth. Children were not taught to think but only to believe. Vocational education was given pride of place and intellectualism was frowned upon. In other words the Vichy Government was trying to manufacture a standard child knowing only how to obey.

But the system has broken down, and the latest newspapers received from France are full of complaints. It appears that nationalism for the French child means little more than indulging in puerile displays of patriotism. Time is spent in waving flags, singing nationalistic songs, indulging in constant displays coloured with layer upon layer of French flags. Sports meetings, even minor local ones, are accompanied by flag waving and singing.

As might be expected many leaders of French thought are very much worried, and the Catholics not least of all. German culture and education are a poor recommendation to the Catholic Church. Its leaders know the new style which is a threat to religion and, in Germany, sowed the seeds of paganism.

The *Croix*, Catholic daily paper, recently appealed to youth to prepare itself to build a France based on Christianity. The writer asks the children to be ready for whatever may happen and to trust in God. "If you want a France . . . rebuilt on Christianity," says the writer, "if you want the national revolution to accomplish something, to follow its human and civilizing mission in the world, then have for your watchword 'Always Ready', be French, and go about your tasks with a good heart, a free heart, and a generous heart directed by the Divine Law". This is very different from the order to obey rapped out by the nationalists.

Le Temps is worried also about the trend in education and the regimenting of the young. Monsieur Lamirand, in an outspoken article, asks that the children should not be dressed in uniforms and moulded into one pattern. "France is a hierarchy," he writes, "which leaves a large place for individual initiative. We do not want our country to become a servile imitation of foreign discipline. French temperament does not lend itself to one unique levelling. France is composed of many different elements whose actions can be of real value only if left at liberty."

He asks for guidance but not for control. Teachers should be given more freedom. Education should follow lines similar to those before the war.

To this outcry there came an immediate reaction. This appeal for liberty showed that France was not yet prepared to accept National Socialism. So the Right called for more planning. Writing in the *Petit Journal*, Monsieur de la Rocque asked French youth to accept sacrifices for the country. Youth must not be allowed liberty. "It would be a criminal fault not to constrain the youth of the country and to show them the part they must play in the shaping of the country," he writes. "If we do not, then youth itself will not forgive us later on. History will condemn us for all time."

This is going to be a hard task. It is evident that once again the Liberals and the Catholics are working together to save the children from worship of a pagan State. It is a curious combination, but it happened before in Germany. The Church has great hopes for France, though it fears the growth of Nazi principles. Meanwhile, teachers are floundering about in uncertain waters. They don't know what to teach; they are nervous of losing their jobs though

(*Continued on page* 196)

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there are few enough teachers. Sooner or later Vichy—and France—will have to decide what sort of education French boys and girls are to receive.

S. H. KAHN.

GERMANY

THE position of education in Germany was recently revealed by Dr. Walter A. Jessup in a special report. Dr. Jessup finds little to recommend the educational system applied under the Nazi régime, which, he points out, demands but three things—political reliability, nationalism, and self-immolation.

Enrolment in universities and technical institutions totals about 84,000, which is 46,000 less than in the days of the Weimar Republic. But the Nazis have never hidden their views on this question and have constantly attacked what they called " too much intellectualism ".

There is one interesting point in the German system, however, which fits perfectly into the many schemes being put forward for the future. Education in Germany involves every stratum of society and is on a truly national basis. Sons and daughters of rich and poor alike pass through the same doors and emerge fashioned to one pattern.

To-day the schools are run on barrack lines. Average pupils are taught the three Rs, and these are considered to be enough. History is coloured a Nazi brown, and geography is injected with large doses of politics, so that the pupils know less about the position and natural resources of a certain place than about its importance to the Third Reich.

Race culture takes a great part in the education of the German child, and the children are urged to work solely for the future of the race. The inculcation of this spirit gives enthusiasm for the various semi-military and labour organizations which drill and put the children to work for the country.

The German education system is well planned along its own peculiar lines and the Nazis obtain from it the results they want. Education in the future world might profit from similar planning based upon liberty and real learning.

S. H. K.

GERMAN *KULTUR* IN POLAND

(Reprinted by kind permission from *The Manchester Guardian* of March 27, 1941

" NO education is needed for digging up potatoes or sweeping streets, and that is the only kind of work Poles will be allowed to do in future."

Such was the reply of the German authorities at Torud, Poland, when petitioned to reopen Polish secondary schools, which had all been closed down. Only elementary and technical training schools are still accessible to Polish youth. Their number is very restricted, since many have been bombed, whilst others have been handed over to German authorities or local Volks-German organizations.

Most of the schools have been stripped of their libraries, collections, technical equipment, and even of their furniture. The teaching of history, geography, and Polish literature has been suppressed. The sale, purchase, or loan of Polish school-books has been prohibited under heavy penalties. Even private study has been forbidden.

All Polish universities and higher educational establishments have ceased to function. A section of the Warsaw polytechnic has been transformed into an *Abaricklungstelle—i.e.* an establishment for testing industrial material. It has, however, been especially stressed that no scientific pursuits will be tolerated in this establishment and that any employee suspected of such activities will be instantly dismissed.

The Warsaw University has been made a police headquarters ; the former Polish Ministry of Education is now the seat of the Gestapo. The extensive students' hostels, built in Warsaw shortly before the war, are now barracks for police and Storm Troopers.

A circular issued by the ' Department of Education and Propaganda ' in Cracow shows quite clearly that the German authorities in the Government-General are carrying on a deliberate action with a view to lowering the morals and debasing the intellect of the Polish population.

The circular tells German officials not to further Polish cultural aims, since this would be tantamount to giving the Poles a political weapon which they would be able to use against their German masters. Public entertainments, performances, and other popular forms of amusement must be made to appeal to the ' primary ' instincts of the population.

Operas and serious dramas, such as tragedies and comedies, are banned. Only light farces, sketches, pantomimes, and the like may be staged, and there is no objection, as is stated expressly in the circular, to their being " trivial and erotic ". Poles are to be prevented from acquiring German literature and are forbidden to publish any books or papers in Polish.

The few papers and magazines appearing in the Government-General in Poland are all published by Germans, and, of course, only contain such news as conforms to German interests, including novels and stories of a ' trivial and erotic ' character.

Three thousand volumes of Polish literature have been withdrawn from circulation and destroyed. These include works on Polish history, geography, science, art, travel, and the like. The singing of Polish national songs has been forbidden. The music of Chopin or Moniuszko is no longer to be heard. All Polish gramophone records in factories and shops have been destroyed.

A gambling den has been opened in Warsaw. It is only accessible to Poles. The broad masses of the population are being doped with alcohol. Whilst white bread is sold to Poles in Warsaw only once a week, spirits are obtainable everywhere in such lavish quantities that peasants, in many cases, receive vodka in lieu of payment in cash for the products they are obliged to deliver to the German authorities.

This is how the Nazis are carrying out their alleged historical mission of bringing German ' Kultur ' to the nations of Eastern Europe.

POLES IN SCOTLAND

THE four Regional Committees of the Central Advisory Council together with a Central Co-ordinating Committee for Scotland have made in recent months a very considerable contribution to the education of the forces in Scotland, both by means of lectures and talks and by more private and personal work with individual soldiers. In one area truly splendid work has been done by a large and devoted body of voluntary teachers in the instruction of Polish officers and men in the English language. One cannot at present, for obvious reasons, give the number of classes which are being held, but, when the story comes to be told, it will be found to reflect not only the ingenuity of the teachers but also the indomitable spirit with which the Poles have tackled our language. The situation is not without its humours. Wishing to thank his teacher, one Polish soldier looked up his dictionary and then said, " Madam, God pickle you ! " (" Pickle " one need hardly say was meant to be " preserve ". There are many such stories. The work of education in general among the troops has demanded great patience in view of the exigencies of the military situation. Two of the four Regional Committees have got out very comprehensive lists of lecturers and, moreover, some of the most useful work is being done by the local education authorities in running classes of a vocational kind.

In other directions, too, the alliance of Scotland with Poland shows steady and happy development. In the region of art, sculpture, and architecture, Polish officers

(*Continued on page* 198)

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and men have been at work and the fruits of their leisure hours will be seen at the forth coming annual exhibition of the Royal Scottish Academy. The outstanding event, however, has been the establishment in the University of Edinburgh of a Polish Faculty of Medicine on March 22, at which were present M. Wladyslaw Raczkiewicz, President of the Polish Republic, and Sir John Anderson, M.P., Lord President of the Council, who conveyed the good wishes of the British Government and the British universities. The ceremony was in the nature of a culmination to the excellent relationships which, for several months, have been established with the professors and staff of the Medical Faculty of Edinburgh. Now, with a nucleus of 12 professors and 46 students, the Polish Medicine Faculty will go forward under its own impetus but guided still by the Edinburgh staff. The inaugural ceremony was unique in the history of British universities. Sir Thomas Holland, Principal of the University, in the course of a brief ddress, referred to the spread of learning in the middle ages and especially to the ancient University of Cracow now become the object of Nazi tyranny. Sir Thomas expressed the belief that Cracow, the home of liberal education, would rise again as a nursery of truth for all peoples, nations, and tongues. Meantime, Edinburgh was doing what it could to maintain among the distinguished Poles to whom they had given sanctuary that spirit of unhampered inquiry which was the heritage of a free people. It is of interest, too, to note that the most ancient of the Scottish universities, St. Andrews, recently conferred upon General Sikorski the honorary degree of LL.D. J. R. PEDDIE.

INDIA

THE latest issue of *The Bombay Teachers' Journal* is mainly devoted to the addresses and proceedings of the Bombay Provincial Secondary Teachers' Conference at Ahmedabad. In the course of his presidential address, Prof. K. T. Shah had something to say about the status and position of the teacher, who, he said, is hardly better than a pauper, or at best a professional mercenary. " In proportion as his importance in the social system diminishes, and he ceases to be the guide and the friend of the taught or their parents, he is insensibly changed into a parasite and an intriguer, who devotes all his time, energy, and experience to hunt the means of self-aggrandisement. I want the teacher to be released from the thraldom to a machine, and free to take his full share in the moulding and making of the new generation. I want the teacher to change from a mere mercenary, a mere cog in the system that keeps us in subjection, represses our longings, and stifles our aspirations, into an enlightened guide, an experienced friend, a sympathetic, understanding, and appreciative leader. I want him to be placed beyond want and suffering ; to be above the need of petty intrigue and degrading manœuvring; to be beyond the reach of bribery or corruption. To achieve this I would have him guaranteed, by a National Charter of Teachers' Rights and Responsibilities : (i) a decent living wage, sufficient to keep him and his family in reasonable comfort according to the standards of the people among whom he lives ; also an assured scale of promotion ; (ii) security of tenure, once he has been appointed to a post in the profession, and has finished his period of probation satisfactorily ; (iii) immunity from all the changing gusts of popular favour, and insurance against all the vagaries of political partisanship ; (iv) suitable and sufficient provision by way of insurance against sickness or accident ; as also against old age, premature disability, or superannuation ; (v) adequate opportunity and facility for study, experimenting, and self-improvement ; (vi) freedom of thought, opinion, and association ; adequate guarantee against any wanton infraction of these rights, as well as against any victimization because of any exercise of these ; (vii) assured social position amidst the people he works ; (viii) liberal rules of conduct and discipline." He went on to say that he would include in the same Charter the obligations and responsibilities of the teachers. Among these were proper qualifications, involving some measure of grading, and the proper organization of the profession—he was not afraid of the term trade union. The teachers must not engage in anti-social activities, or take an active part in movements likely to subvert the established order. It was better for the teacher to promote the advent of new ideas by scientifically and dispassionately laying down reasons and conditions for new attitudes and outlook, than to be involved himself in actively leading the movement for change. The teacher owes it to the community so to conduct himself that the people he works with have no cause to doubt his sincerity, to question the cleanliness of his life, or to suspect the personal integrity of his dealings. Furthermore, he must realize that the rising generation to which India looks forward is not to be a body of slaves, nor of submissive subordinates ; but a generation of independent, self-respecting, democratic citizens, whose personality, initiative, and enterprise must be developed to the utmost by every means the teacher can apply.

Thus transformed, teachers and pupils would automatically take up a new position in the scheme of social life.

S. B. LUCAS.

U.S.A.

" TEACHERS do have something to ponder seriously when three responsible and democratically chosen leaders of organizations traditionally favourable to education characterize teachers as parasites, ineffective intellectuals, and creatures indolently lolling in idleness at public expense." Thus writes a representative of the Education Committee of the American Federation of Labour after attending a conference in Wisconsin, as reported in *The American Teacher* for February. He concludes that the teachers of America have failed in their programme of public relations in certain important areas, and that there exists an alarming apathy towards education as an essential concomitant of democratic government, and a quasi-contempt for teachers as job holders on the public pay-roll. He adds :

" That the first duty of a union teacher is to do a good job of teaching school and to strive for better working conditions only in terms of improved educational facilities for the nation's children has long been the fundamental concept of the American Federation of Teachers. Upon no other basic philosophy can a successful union programme ultimately be predicated. It must be a primary and principal objective of organized teachers to prove to the citizens of America that there is no group of professional workers in the nation which is more devoted, industrious, and efficient than the teachers in the public schools ; that thousands of teachers work in virtual sweatshops with forty to fifty pupils or more, and with equipment which is grossly inadequate ; that parents who are nonplussed by the problems of rearing one or two children should be deeply sympathetic with and respectful to the teacher who is faced with the enervating task of training a ' family ' of twenty-five to fifty active children ; that the school day is only part of the teacher's day and that many hours are spent at night marking papers, making lesson plans, filling in ever-increasing reports, and rendering countless services to the community ; that in no place in the economic structure of the nation does the investment of a dollar bring such large returns in actual service rendered as in a teacher's salary ; that the total cost in taxes to the average American family for educating the children in the family is only approximately as much as the cost of operating the ice-box in the kitchen ; that the nation spends more than twice as much for liquor as for the salaries of the teachers of the nation's children and seven times as much for crime and delinquency as for the total cost of education ; that the teachers are not educational parasites, but the builders of citizenship—not ineffective intellectuals but efficient, highly-skilled workers, and that they actually *work* for a living." S. B. L.

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NEW MEDIA

British Film Institute.—The Seventh Annual Report* of the Film Institute gives welcome evidence that the war has not slowed its activity. On the contrary, new opportunities have come and have been seized. In co-operation with the Ministry of Information, 1,484 film shows were arranged for 152,000 children in remote areas of Scotland, films were shown to French troops, advice is being given and many films lent to the many organizations concerned with the education of the Forces.

The National Film Library has now been moved into the specially built vaults, near Aylesbury, where the splendid collection of films is stored, as well as the War Films made during the First World War. During the year 101 films have been added—the collection of early Chaplins is now the most complete anywhere—as well as much news-reel material and thirty new films available for loan. A specially designed optical printer has been constructed so as to allow old films not made to modern-day standards to be copied on to the ordinary film stock at present in use. To judge from the large number of films borrowed, the members of the Institute are finding the facilities of the Library more and more useful. It is disturbing to learn that minor financial difficulties hamper its proper growth and development.

The Governors report that, at the request of the Board of Education, the Institute now concerns itself, not only with films but with all forms of visual education—new pamphlets on home-made episcopes and diascopes are the first fruits of this new departure.

The war has practically stopped the always very small production of educational films, but Mr. J. Fairgrieve continues to edit teaching films out of existing material prepared for other purposes, and the British Council may shortly commission the making of films for distribution abroad. In addition, of course, the Viewing Panels are continuing their work of reviewing and reporting.

These are but a few items, picked almost at random, from a most interesting Report. Taken as a whole, that Report is an impressive record of solid work and growing usefulness, for which the Institute deserves warm congratulations.

*From the British Film Institute, 4 Great Russell Street, London, W.C. 1. 6d.

British Council Films.—The British Council has decided to make educational films, which will be distributed abroad. Twelve will be ready by the end of the summer and twelve more by the end of the year. The British Film Institute is co-operating by giving advice on subjects and method of treatment. It has been recommended that a start be made with three films on Human Geography, three on Physics, three on Growth and Reproduction and three on Physical Education (Analysis of Movement), and that the films made be related to each other to form connected series suitable for children in the 12 to 15 age group. Since linguistic difficulties will arise in foreign countries, it is further recommended that both sound and silent versions be prepared, and, to meet the criticisms sometimes advanced in the Dominions, it has been suggested that a commentary should be spoken by a Canadian as well as by some one speaking 'standard' English. These British Council films will probably be the first educational films to have virtually a world-circulation. One hopes that they will extend and raise still further the very high reputation which British educational films enjoy abroad even in the U.S.A., land of Hollywood and home of super-films. They should also help to convince our friends in other lands that English educators are alive to the immense possibilities of visual education and that the war has not distracted them entirely from their more permanent interests and pursuits.

Broadcasts to Schools.—The summer-term programme of school broadcasts once again reveals the growing co-operation between broadcasting and class-room teaching. The broadcasts cover a wide range of subjects—English for Everyday Use, Stories from World History, Movements and Men in Modern British History, Travel Talks, Our Changing Countryside, Physical Training, Music, The Practice and Science of Gardening, Mathematics and Life, General Science, and the speakers are leading exponents of their subjects. The programme is classified under the days of the week and the hour of the day, and produced on a large sheet suitable for pinning to the notice board. The Friday morning service for schools will continue at the time which seems to suit the majority of schools, namely, 9.5 to 9.25 a.m. The service will include Introductory Music, Introductory Talk, The Service, Closing Music.

TOPICS AND EVENTS

THE HON. LADY LAWRENCE

Her wide circle of friends, both official and personal, will recall with gratitude and admiration the distinguished service which Lady Lawrence gave to children and, in particular, to the children of London. She was a member of the Education Committee of the L.C.C. for fifteen years and chairman of the Special Services Sub-Committee. She served on the Departmental Committee for the Treatment of Young Offenders appointed by the Home Secretary in 1929; she sat on the bench in various Children's Courts and took a signal share in the progressive reforms in those courts and the ways of dealing with delinquent and neglected children for which recent years have been so notable. She was also one of the pioneers of the Child Guidance movement, in which sphere she gave unobtrusive but eminent service. Her devotion to the welfare of children earned the gratitude of all associated with her in this work.

MARY HUGHES

The East End of London has suffered a notable loss in the death of Miss Mary Hughes, only surviving daughter of the author of *Tom Brown's Schooldays*, at the age of 81. She left her Berkshire home many years ago in order to devote her life to the services of the poor, and lived in Whitechapel a life of energy and self-sacrifice, sleeping on a board and subsisting largely on bread and cheese and tea. For some years she was a member of the Governing Body of the Davenport Foundation School, Stepney.

NATIONAL UNION OF STUDENTS

Social problems bulked largely in the discussions that took place at the Congress of the National Union of Students, held at Cambridge. Miss E. M. Batten, Secretary of the Settlements Board, speaking as a social scientist, said the inter-departmental complexities of the Ministries would have to be straightened out before they could hope for more adequate machinery. They needed first-class highly trained social workers before they could get adequate social reforms. She hoped that the drive, energy, and enthusiasm drawn out by the war would be transformed into abiding interest in social problems. The greatest problem was the

(*Continued on page* 202)

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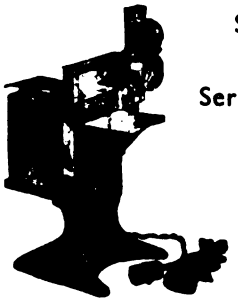

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Numbers already issued include articles by Lascelles Abercrombie, Edmund Blunden, F. S. Boas, Guy Boas, Bernard Darwin, Alpha of the Plough, Lord Ponsonby, Dorothy L. Sayers, D. M. Stuart, Sean O'Casey, T. Sturge Moore, Una Ellis-Fermor, and poems by Laurence Binyon, John Drinkwater, Wilfred Gibson, Walter de la Mare, Humbert Wolfe, and others.

The magazine, together with a copy of the Presidential Address, is issued to all Members of the Association in return for their subscription. It is also available for the general public, and can be obtained through Messrs. W. H. Smith & Sons, or direct from the Publishers, the Oxford University Press—price 2s. 6d. net.

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rehabilitation of those whose personalities had been killed in separation from families, homes, works, and the background of life by bombing.

Dr. E. H. Wilkins, assistant school medical officer, Birmingham, gained unqualified assent in contending that, if there were not sufficient income, parental efficiency could not function properly. Much nonsense had been talked about wonderful poverty-stricken parents, able to make do with so little. With a greatly improved standard of living there was need for more rigorous assessments of health, cleanliness, and malnutrition.

Lady Ernest Simon, speaking on the Fisher Education Act, said that great care and determination would be needed to avoid the mistakes of 1917 in a new Education Bill which was due. It was difficult to interest those who would control the passage of the Bill through the House of Commons, and still more difficult to ensure that, when it became an Act, it would be properly administered. If all children attended common State schools enthusiasm for educational reform might be aroused and aims achieved.

At the final meetings it was decided by 839 votes to 36 to send a message to the youth and students of the world. This was to the effect that youth wished to play its full part in a just and lasting solution of the present conflict that could be achieved only by the co-operation of all peoples. They earnestly desired to work with the youth of all countries on the basis of complete national equality and self-determination. Racial theories of the kind advanced by Sir Robert Vansittart, making no distinction between the German people and their Government, stood in the way of co-operation and lasting peace. "We condemn the Nazis' racial theories. We repudiate equally such theories when expounded in this country, and affirm that there is no quarrel between the youth of the world. We therefore pledge ourselves to work in our own country for a solution which will benefit the people of the world."

Another resolution (passed by 897 votes to 5) declared that the universities in Britain to-day, though they perform a useful function, are far from being ideally fitted to carry out their responsibilities. The impetus of reform must come in the main from the students, and free discussion must be possible. It was regarded as essential that all students of 18–19 who would in the ordinary way have proceeded to universities should be allowed to postpone their military service until the completion of the university course, provided they had shown themselves academically qualified by passing examinations to the satisfaction of a reviewing board; there should also be maintenance of adequate finance in the shape of national and local government grants, and the air training scheme should be modified so that it did not completely remove all potential entrants to universities.

The Conference condemned recent attacks on liberties, and demanded the fullest legal freedom of speech, meeting, and publication. Hooliganism in the suppression of meetings was censured, and university authorities were asked to stop it rather than curtail the liberties of students. There should be co-operation with other bodies striving to maintain civil liberties. Curricula should be related to social needs, students should take part in social research, and teaching should be directed to the development of critical faculties.

NATIONAL UNION OF WOMEN TEACHERS

A picture of the "tragedy that had overtaken our children" since the war began was given by Miss B. M. Pearson in her presidential address to the annual conference of the National Union of Women Teachers at York. Miss Pearson said the teachers had been engaged on non-educational activities, while large numbers of children had received very little education for eighteen months. The true picture should be known to the general public that the national conscience might be aroused in defence of the rights of children. Something must be done immediately. The children could not wait for post-war schemes of reconstruction. The conference adopted resolutions demanding provision for all school children of bomb-proof shelters in which teaching could be carried on, and equal pay for men and women in the Civil Service and the teaching profession, and in the civil defence services. Other resolutions passed demanded a national scale of salaries for teachers and the raising of the school-leaving age, and that the number of children in each class should not exceed thirty. It was stated that children were being exploited by having to work on the farms, that farmers did not want them, and that the Board of Education should look after the education of the children. Miss H. K. Allison said that there was no labour shortage sufficient to warrant children being taken from the class-room to the fields. Miss A. Winchester said that the appalling conditions of labour in agriculture had driven agricultural workers into the towns. The children were now expected to fill that gap.

CHRISTIAN EDUCATION

At the Caxton Hall on March 22 a public lecture was given by the Rev. J. D. Boyle, S.J., Headmaster of Beaumont College, on the subject of "Christian Education".

Dr. Boyle said that the "challenge of the war", so far as education was concerned, lay in the question "Are we prepared to make our education as uncompromisingly Christian as theirs is uncompromisingly Nazi?" Educational progress in this country had concerned method far more than principles. There was a lack of clear aim and purpose, and hence a tendency to over-emphasize each new movement as it arose. The new subjects were not assimilated into a living system, but merely added to an existing framework.

The danger was thus that any drive towards a Christian education might end in nothing more than extended periods for 'religious instruction'. This would not be Christian education; for doctrine must never be conceived as just one 'subject' among others. He quoted the passages from Pius XI's *Encyclical* on "Christian Education" (1930) proclaiming that religion is the very foundation of education, and education part of a way of life. Anything short of this would tend to produce a "fatal duality" in the mind of the child. There must be not Culture and Christianity but Christian Culture.

It suggests that the unifying principle of the curriculum can be found "in Christian doctrine, which should form the skeleton on which the curriculum is built up, with the child's growing knowledge of history, the arts and the sciences coming from, and seen in relation to, his faith. . . . At the same time the school should be organized primarily as a Christian community, of which the heart and centre is the school chapel—as the parish church in happier times entered into the life of the parish".

Difficulties were but opportunities. So much of our educational theory and practice was in the melting-pot to-day that the present seemed a favourable time for experiment. Accordingly, urged Dr. Boyle, the various religious communions might draw up a Christian Educational Plan to be submitted for approval to the religious authorities and the local authorities and the Board of Education. And the church schools, through their headmasters, should be authorized to issue school leaving certificates or their equivalent. This lecture was the fourth of a series sponsored by the "Sword of the Spirit" Movement. The climax of the whole series is to be a two-day public meeting, on May 10 and 11, at the Stoll Opera House, Kingsway, London. At the first meeting the chair will be taken by Cardinal Hinsley; at the second, by the Archbishop of Canterbury.

Preparation for the Teaching Profession.—Young people who intended to be trained as teachers may find it difficult, in the absence of authoritative direction, to decide

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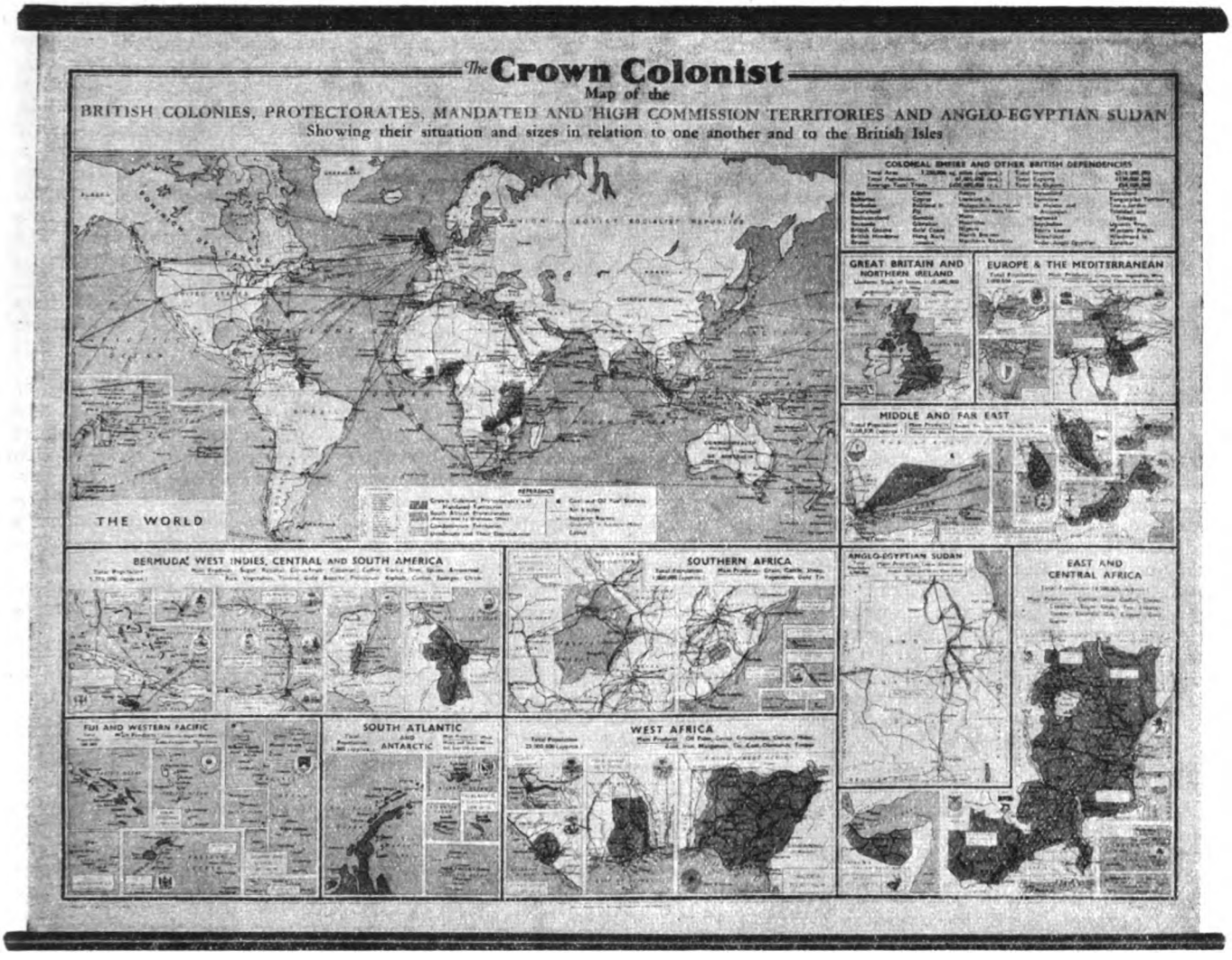

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whether to take up some form of war work at once or whether to pursue their original intention until called upon to engage in some other form of national service. The decision in this matter must rest ultimately with the individual and his or her parents. The Board of Education are anxious not to minimize the need for young men and young women in the many branches of national service whi h are open to them, but they would also emphasize the fact that there will be a great need for teachers in the future. Nothing stands in the way of suitably qualified young women entering training colleges or university training departments with a view to preparing themselves for service as teachers. In this connexion the Board wish to make it clear that, although all women of the prescribed ages are required to ' register ', it is not contemplated that it will be necessary to ask full-time women students at training colleges or universities to abandon their studies. There is also nothing to prevent young men, who are under military age, and have the necessary qualifications, from entering a training college, where they will be able to complete at least part, and possibly a whole year, of their training for the teaching profession. It may, indeed, prove, though there can be no certainty in such a matter, that the younger men students will be able to complete the shortened course of five terms, required under war conditions to qualify them for recognition as certificated teachers, before they are ' called up ' under the National Service (Armed Forces) Act. The Board have, as a war measure, lowered the minimum age of admission for men students to training colleges from 18 to 17 for the special purpose of enabling them to secure as long a period of training as possible before they are ' called up '. Further, intending male teachers who satisfactorily complete a year's course at a training college will not be required after the war to complete so much as a further year of training in order to qualify themselves for recognition as certificated teachers.

Food Education.—In the Board of Education's Circulars 1497 and 1506 attention was called to the need of organizing the instruction of housewives in the principles of war-time catering and cookery. From the programmes which the Board have received from authorities, and from the reports of their Inspectors, it is evident that in most areas the response to these Circulars has been highly satisfactory, and that the great majority of authorities are actively engaged, in co-operation with voluntary bodies and commercial undertakings, in the organization of courses, demonstrations and other methods of giving guidance to the public on the use of food in war-time. If work of this nature is to be successful over a period of time the line of approach must constantly be changed and appeals must be made to a different public as well as different appeals to the same public. It is necessary also that the campaign should be kept in close touch with developments in the food situation. As food restrictions become more marked, there is a growing need of guidance in making the best use of supplies which are available.

With the object of helping to meet this growing need, the Ministry of Food are establishing Food Advice Centres in certain parts of the country in which it is thought that they can be of service to housewives. These Centres will be staffed by supervising demonstrators and by demonstrators appointed by the Ministry. The Ministry and the Board desire that there shall be no conflict or duplication between the work of these demonstrators and the many well-established activities of local education authorities and other bodies engaged in food education, whose work it is hoped will continue to develop and expand to meet the increasingly difficult food situation. The main purpose of the Food Advice Centres and the work radiating from them will be general propaganda, which it is believed will assist in arousing interest in the educational work carried on by the local education authorities. The new demonstrators will be members of the staffs of the Divisional Food Offices, while the Ministry's District Officers for Food Economy, referred to in Circular 1506, who have recently been appointed Assistant Divisional Food Officers, will continue to be available, in conjunction with the Board's Inspectors, to assist authorities in ma ing the movement as effective as possible. A valuable part of our home-grown food in this country is our large supply of fruit. In order to assist leaders of Fruit Preservation Centres to make as great a success of this work as possible, the Ministry of Agriculture and the Board of Education propose to ensure adequate provision this season of suitable short refresher courses wherever requisite. To that end the two Departments will be severally responsible for the organization of such courses in different areas. Local education authorities will be fully consulted and further details will be given to them, with a view to securing their help in making a success of these courses.

Scots Schools to Grow More Food.—There are schools in Scotland which might help to grow more food. In urging education authorities on the need for greater effort in the production of home-grown foods, the Scottish Education Department say that it is of the utmost importance that the increased harvest of school gardens should be fully utilized. Over Scotland as a whole a substantially increased acreage is to be brought under cultivation by the schools during 1941, but there are still areas and schools, both urban a d rural, from which increased production might reasonably be expected. The character and quantity of the several crops to be grown by a school must be the subject of most careful consideration. Each school garden, it is advised, should be planned primarily in relation to local needs. By arranging that the harvest is spread, as far as possible, over the whole year, authorities may avoid the problem of a surplus arising. Schools which cultivate large gardens may be able to produce vegetables in excess of local demand Authorities are asked to make every endeavour to ensure that the excess will consist mainly of non-perishable foodstuffs. Arrangements for the disposal of any surplus will be made by the Garden Produce Committees to be set up by the Ministry of Food. Intimation of the character and quantity of any p.obable surplus is to be made in advance to the local Food Executive Officer.

Community Feeding.—The Board have been requested by the Ministry of Food to point out th it the provisi n of facilities for communal feeding for use during special emergencies should be made only with the approval of the Ministry. Instructions regarding the provision of such facilities have been issued by the Ministry to the local authorities of towns with a population of 50,000 or over. The purpose of Section I of Circular 1539 is to authorize and encourage local education authorities to cooperate so far as is necessary in proposals framed by the general local authority and approved by the Ministry of Food. It app ars that Section II o Circular 1539 has been taken by some authorities to imply that the provision of school meals should not be further developed as a separate service, but that school children requiring meals away from home should attend community feeding centres for the general public. While the latter arrangement may be appropriate in a few instances where the provision of school meals is impracticable, it remains the policy of the Board, in agreement with the Ministry of Food, that the provision of school meals, whether free or for payment, should be developed by means of school canteens under the control of local education authorities. No departure from this policy is implied in the suggestion in paragraph 6(*c*) of the Circular that the cooking of the meals to be served in school canteens may sometimes with advantage be undertaken in central kitchens which are also used for preparing communal meals for the public.

(*Continued on page 206*)

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Employment of Children in Agriculture.—In Circular 1541 attention was drawn to the need of all possible help in meeting the seasonal demands of agriculture, and ways were suggested in which older pupils might render such help. It is understood that some difficulty has been felt by local education and school authorities in regard to the suggestion made in paragraph 3 that parties of pupils should be organized under proper supervision to visit local farms on certain days in term time, and the following observations, which have been discussed with the Ministry of Agriculture, may be of assistance :

(*a*) *Supervision.* The importance of adequate supervision has been emphasized by a recent case, which was the subject of legal proceedings. Supervision by the farmers is obviously necessary in order to ensure that the work of the pupils is carried out on the right lines and to the best advantage. While such supervision should also assist in keeping order among the pupils, it cannot in any sense relieve teachers and, incidentally, school authorities of the general responsibility which they have for supervising the safety and well-being of children at all times, while they are in their charge.

(*b*) *Size of Parties.* The size of organized parties must obviously depend on local demands and is a matter for arrangement with County War Agricultural Executive Committees and farmers. For many jobs on the farm parties can be reasonably large and the necessary supervision by teachers thereby simplified. Where the circumstances call for smaller parties it is important that a prefect or senior pupil should be placed in charge of each group.

(*c*) *Payment.* It is expected that payment by farmers should be made at a rate not less than that fixed by the Agricultural Wages Board for boys under and over 16 respectively. The Ministry of Agriculture have advised that such payments should be made to a representative of the school, not to the pupils themselves.

(*d*) *Insurance.* It is unlikely that questions under the Workmen's Compensation Acts will arise. As regards insurance against accidents the farmers' liability is generally covered, and schools are advised to see that they are covered by the ordinary policies covering accidents. A special type of policy has been agreed covering personal accidents to school-children, copies of which may be obtained from the County War Agricultural Committees. Premiums on policies of the latter type might no doubt be paid from the payments made by farmers for the services rendered by the pupils.

Headmaster of Warwick School to Pay £814.—A 14-years-old pupil of Warwick School lost an eye when he was accidentally hit with a clod of earth thrown by another boy. Negligence on the part of Mr. A. H. B. Bishop, Headmaster of Warwick School, was held to have been proved by Mr. Justice Cassels, in the Nisi Prius Court at Birmingham Assizes. The Judge awarded the lad—Robert Alexander Camkin, son of Mr. W. A. Camkin, of Leamington—£750 damages. The hearing of the case occupied the greater part of two days, during which time legal authorities on the matter of the liability of headmasters of schools were the subject of exhaustive research by the judge and by counsel both for the plaintiff and the defendant. A feature of the case was that Mr. Bishop was in the witness-box for nearly two and a half hours, one and a half hours of which time was taken up by cross-examination by Mr. Arthur Ward. In view of this judgment, headmasters are not likely to show much enthusiasm in organizing parties for field work. No reasonable amount of supervision can prevent accidents of this sort, and the question of liability in such circumstances needs further examination.

War Savings at Schools.—Some of the outstanding efforts made by school war-saving groups were recently quoted by Mr. J. Chuter Ede, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education. Some two and a half million school children were now members of these groups. A junior school of 120 pupils started a group in February, 1940, and by the end of the year had saved £5,800. A boys' central school saved £60 in 1939. It saved more than ten times that amount in 1940. A girls' school which in 1939 saved £51, now took over £100 a week. Some astounding results had also been achieved in schools during War Weapons Weeks. An isolated school of forty-nine children in Cumberland saved £6,000 in the week, mainly by the perseverance of the headmaster who tramped miles through 2 ft. of snow, canvassing. In the same week another school of seventeen pupils saved £2,200. A small school in Pembrokeshire saved £4,005 in its War Weapons Week.

Schools of the Future.—Mr. Chuter Ede, addressing the Somerset County Teachers' Association at Taunton, said that after the war the country would have a great opportunity for the planning of future cities, towns and villages. The builders of the nineteenth-century England had regarded the monotonous, ugly agglomeration of drab streets as suitable homes for the industrial population, and schools often conformed to the general dismal standard of the neighbourhood. Intensive bombing, and the consideration of the appropriate location of industry, would compel rehousing on a more extensive scale than had been considered feasible two years ago. In the planning of post-war Britain we must not allow the siting of educational facilities to receive the scant consideration hitherto bestowed on it. Playing fields must adjoin the schools. There must be freedom from external noises such as those coming from shunting yards, arterial roads, and industrial processes. The new school should not be situated next to the cemetery, nor near sewage works, nor in the neighbourhood of trades having offensive smells. Mr. Ede said he knew of many cases where it was not necessary to consult the weather-vane to ascertain the direction of the wind. "I was taught and have taught in schools having a busy railway line on one or more sides," said Mr. Ede. "My experience makes me determined to prevent others from having it."

Schooling in London.—Mr. Chuter Ede, speaking at the S.E. London Branch of the London Teachers' Association at Lewisham, said that 425,546 children had been evacuated from London under all the evacuation schemes. Many children had been evacuated privately and in recent weeks, for every child going with a party, three were going privately. There were 93,000 elementary school children now in London, nearly 84,000 of them were on the school rolls, of whom 2,300 were on half-time. 2,576 teachers were employed in the re-opened schools and 600 more were required for the efficient running of the schools now in use. The number of children receiving meals and milk had risen rapidly since Christmas. While recognizing the good work being done by the teachers in the London schools, Mr. Ede said that the Government had never altered the view that the proper place for London children in war-time was the reception area. Mr. Ede announced that a new scheme for providing clothing to evacuated children had the active support of 600 billeting authorities, 81 education authorities, numerous W.V.S. depots and other organizations. Welfare work in the reception areas had been continuously expanded and over 900 requests from local authorities for help in arranging welfare work had been met by London.

Cleanliness in Children.—The Ministry of Health and the Board of Education have asked public health and education authorities to review their organization for examining children for head lice, and to submit proposals for improving their arrangements. The circular sent by the two Ministries says that, since the complaints which were made at the time of the first evacuation of children in

(*Continued on page 208*)

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September, 1939, much has been done by local authorities to ensure greater cleanliness; but much still remains to be done, particularly in the industrial cities. While it is hoped that the steps now to be taken will bring about a substantial further improvement, the permanent eradication of head lice will only be achieved by education. Mothers should be told the dangers of lousiness, and simple ways of avoiding them. The older girls should be regularly and thoroughly instructed. Publicity in the matter, states the circular, should be frank, and the euphemism "uncleanliness" when lousiness is meant should be abandoned in favour of plain speaking. Local authorities should make continuous and persistent use of their powers.

Machine Tool Equipment.—Neither new nor second-hand machine tools can now be purchased by local education authorities without the prior approval of the Controller of Machine Tools. Consequently, any proposal for new buildings should be accompanied by a detailed statement of the prospects of acquiring the second-hand machine tools which are required. One important source of supply is imported machine tools, a proportion of which is at the disposal of the Ministry of Labour for training purposes. In spite of certain disadvantages in using this source of supply, the Board have thought it worth while to make a provisional arrangement with the Ministry of Labour by which certain of the tools from overseas which appear from their specification to be acceptable to colleges would be set aside in a Government Training Centre and provisionally allocated to technical colleges which the Board knew were in need of them. Arrangements would then be made for the tools to be inspected by the college staff, who would decide whether they were suitable for their purpose. Removal from the Government Training Centre to the College would have to be arranged by the Authority. The cost of the tools would be communicated to the Authority by the Ministry as it was known. It will be open to an Authority, at the end of the war, to submit a claim for special payment in respect of a certified deficit. The Board would be glad to receive at the earliest possible date from any Authority which is prepared to accept the financial conditions, particulars of the number and types of machine tools which they require to complete the equipment of existing colleges in order to make their training courses fully efficient. Authorities which have machine tools on order from normal suppliers should include these with appropriate details in the statement of their requirements.

Board of Education Estimates.—The estimate of the net expenditure of the Board of Education in 1941 is £54,915,639, being an increase of £2,250,666 over the vote for 1940, including the Supplementary Vote of £120,400. Among the increases are grants to local education authorities, £1,821,000; pensions to teachers, £407,560. The latter is due to the automatic growth in the number of pensioners. School meals and air-raid shelters are partly responsible for the increase in grants to local education authorities. The provision included for grants to approved voluntary organizations to encourage the preservation and development of facilities for the social welfare and physical training and recreation of young people is £136,000 (as compared with £84,900 for 1940).

Evening Classes in the Summer.—The response of authorities to the Board's Circular 1526 relating to the provision of evening classes during the winter session 1940–41 has shown their determination to maintain this service so far as possible. Many persons wish to take advantage of recreational facilities, including physical activities of all kinds and 'hobby' work, while there will be some who wish to carry on their vocational studies and make good some of the time inevitably lost during the winter. Again, the War Office have advised the Board that they hope that, so far as conditions may permit, classes for soldiers will continue to be provided. It is suggested, accordingly, in Administrative Memorandum No. 283, that the extent of the possible demand should be ascertained and that a sufficient number of Evening Institutes should be kept open to meet the various types of demand which may be found to exist. Those authorities who, during the winter, have been obliged to substitute week-end classes for evening classes will no doubt usually revert to evening classes while the longer hours of daylight make this possible.

Adult Education in Scotland.—The number of continuation classes and adult education courses organized in Scotland during the past winter was nearly double that of the previous winter. In making this announcement and paying a tribute to the Education Authorities concerned, the Scottish Education Department encourage the provision of such classes during the spring and summer months. "As past experience shows", the Department state, "the adult education movement, in particular, has no seasonal limits." The value of spring and summer courses will be to provide cultural or vocational facilities for many students whose interests and needs go beyond the opportunities they have had under winter conditions in war time. It is hoped also that classes for soldiers will continue to be provided. During the past winter the number of physical recreation classes has also greatly increased. Bodily fitness is of great importance to every one, and it is hoped that open-air classes will form a feature of the spring and summer programmes, without, of course, interfering with out-door activities connected with food production and other forms of war effort. A movement mentioned as worthy of special support is the food education campaign, in which the education authorities have already played a big part. It is suggested that war-time cookery classes and demonstrations carried into the summer should do much to promote the health and well-being of all classes in the conditions they have to meet to-day.

Conditions in Reception Areas.—The Ministry of Health have issued the report of the Committee which, under the chairmanship of Mr. Geoffrey Shakespeare, M.P., has been considering this matter. There are a large number of recommendations, covering, amongst other things, provision of premises where parties can stay a few days to rest and clean up; closer co-operation between civil and military billeting authorities; provision of communal welfare facilities, including mothers' clubs, nursery centres and week-end hostels where husbands can stay when visiting their wives; more premises are required for the housing of large families, unbilletable cases and those in need of special attention; a declaration by the Minister of Health, on the advice of the Senior Regional Officer, that saturation point has been reached in a certain area; wider extension of the District Medical Service; a careful watch on water supply, sanitation and sewage disposal where the influx of population has proved their inadequacy; a weekly kit inspection of the clothing of the children by the teacher responsible; and the establishment, wherever possible, of advice bureaux to give evacuees all the necessary information about their district. (H.M. Stationery Office, 3d. net.)

Carnegie United Kingdom Trust.—The Earl of Elgin, in moving the adoption of the Annual Report of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees at Dunfermline, said that, in shaping their war-time policy, they were influenced by the desire to prevent any slipping back in the field already gained, and to conserve their own resources, in as fluid a condition as possible, for the vast reconstruction with which they would be faced when hostilities ceased. They had classified their grants under three headings, Policy, War Maintenance and Emergency. They had lent £25,000 to H.M. Government, free of interest, and had authorized a further loan of £30,000; continued their support of the Land Settlement Association; given help to rehabilitate village halls damaged by enemy

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action ; and assisted amateur music-making groups on the lines contemplated by the Hichens report. Two grants in particular indicated determination on the part of the Trust to maintain the pioneer spirit even in the midst of adversity. The first was to assist the establishment in the County of Oxford of a number of Youth Service Camps, the intention being to train young people to have an interest in working on the land. The second was that promised to the 1940 Council, a new body formed for the purpose of taking stock of national resources and for collecting evidence and material which would be useful in planning for post-war reconstruction. It is evident that the Trustees are alive to the needs of the times, and that their beneficent work is being carried on in the right spirit.

Training Course for Youth Service Leaders and Organizers.—The following provisional programme of Courses for Youth Leaders and Organizers is contemplated for 1941.

1. (*a*) *Two-Weeks Course at Oxford—July* 12–26. Students will be accommodated at Lady Margaret Hall, and facilities will be avilable in the premises of the Oxford University Department of Education. The course will be open to men and women who are already engaged in the Youth Service in England, whether as paid or voluntary workers, and is intended primarily for Club Leaders and Youth Service Organizers. Not more than 120 students can be admitted. (*b*) *Two-Weeks Course at Aberystwyth—June* 28–*July* 12. This Course will be held at the University College of Wales and students will be accommodated at Alexandra Hall, the women's hostel. The Course will be open alike to men and women already engaged in the Youth Service in Wales and to those who contemplate entering that Service. It is designed for about eighty students.

2. *Two-Weeks Course at Westhill College, Birmingham—August* 30–*September* 13. This Course will be open to men and women who have attended previous courses of training, *e.g.* the Courses already held at Westhill and Homerton or equivalent Courses. Not more than about eighty students can be admitted.

3. *A further Two-Weeks Course*, of the same type as in paragraph 1 above will be held in the north of England during the Christmas vacation. The place and date have not yet been fixed.

American Aid for Nursery Centres.—The British War Relief Society of America have provided funds to the Nursery School Association to pay for the services of a number of organizers to go round the country to discover where Nursery Centres were needed, and American gifts have also been gratefully accepted for the provision of such centres. Grants have also been received from the Lord Mayor's Air Raid Distress Fund and others. At an exhibition of Nursery Schools arranged by the Nursery School Association at Charing Cross Underground Station, Mr. Ramsbotham stated that in just over three months the number of centres had risen from fifteen to eighty-six and that many more should soon be available. Nursery Centres are being established with the aim of making conditions more attractive for evacuated mothers with tiny children, and the householders in the reception areas.

New Education Fellowship.—The New Education Fellowship announce an International Conference to be held at Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, from July 6–12 next. The subject of the conference, which will meet under the chairmanship of Mrs. Roosevelt, is "Education and Human Resources." Speakers include John Dewey, Thomas Mann, B. Malinowski, E. G. Savage, J. Compton, Aldous Huxley, Cordell Hull, Stephen Leacock, and E. Lindemann. Details from Mr. F. Redefer, N.E.F., 221 West 57th Street, N.Y., and from N.E.F., 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1.

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By "E. K. S."

THIS* is a remarkable book, deeply religious in tone, and on that account revolutionary in many of its proposals. In the earlier part of the book the author deals with the various tendencies which, in his view, have led to the dissolution of the sense of moral values, and so have paved the way to political, economic, and social collapse—the illusion of security, the love of comfort, the curse of shallow optimism, the de-moralization of economics, and the cult of power. The whole book is a plea for the restoration to pride of place in our human society of moral values, and a challenge to democracy to resist with all its heart and soul and mind and strength the barbaric onslaught of the slaves of the machine. "Some common agreement as to what life means, what is worth living for, and for what in extremity we must die quite cheerfully, is the first step to a restored national morale. . . . If we cling to the cargo we may lose the ship." "Only so far as these values are fostered—through art and religion and science and love and domestic life—can man effectively use the machines and powers that have enabled them to tame nature and secure human existence from the worst outrages and accidents that forever threaten it."

To restore these ideals we need a renewal in faith and in deed of our belief in family life. "The family is more important than the factory: life only avails, not the means of living." Wages and hours, our methods of financing and building houses, and of town planning, must all be adapted to meet the needs of the family. We must recover our belief in the dignity of manual labour. We should establish youth service groups, an adaptation of the labour camp movement in Germany, initiated by Dr. Eugen Rosenstock-Huessy and not by Hitler. Men from the country and the city, the intellectual and the manual worker, the mechanic, the peasant, the student, must be brought together in a close working comradeship. The discipline of manual work is a necessary part in the training of the individual, while participation in works of public utility will help in the culture of the social man.

The author in his preface to the English edition pays a fine tribute to the British people. "But, as it happened, the first response to *Faith for Living* came from the British people. It came in the form of that cool courage, that resolute action, that high magnanimity and selflessness, that tough endurance of German terrorism, which during the last few months has given the world a spectacle of collective heroism it will never forget. No one could be more humbly aware than myself that the publication of *Faith for Living* in England is a carrying of coals to Newcastle. You have proved your faith; and you have given an example of what free men throughout the world must demand of themselves, if any life worth having is to survive. No matter what further trials you may have to bear, you have already risen above the very possibility of defeat."

* **Faith for Living.** By L. MUMFORD. (7s. 6d. net. Secker & Warburg.)

A MATHEMATICIAN'S APOLOGY

By Professor J. B. DALE

IT is frequently suggested that the responsibility for the horrors of total warfare lies at the door of science. Physics, chemistry, and their applications in engineering have created the wireless by which nations are deceived and the aeroplanes, bombs, poison gases, and other weapons by which they are destroyed. And behind science and technology, actively assisting by calculation, direction, and prediction, stands mathematics, which must therefore be regarded as an associate in crime.

Of course the complete and sufficient answer to such charges is that no ethical element enters into science or mathematics. The good or ill which flows from them is solely due to their use or abuse, and this depends upon the human will.

However, Prof. Hardy appears to be somewhat uneasy, and hence he has penned this apology for mathematics and for himself as a mathematician.*

His defence of mathematics takes a somewhat unexpected turn. He admits that some branches of mathematics are of great service in science and technology, but asserts that these branches are of an elementary and trivial character. On the other hand, the 'real' mathematics of the 'real' mathematicians is almost entirely useless. As far as his own work is concerned, Prof. Hardy writes: "No discovery of mine has made or is likely to make, directly or indirectly, for good or ill the least difference to the amenity of the world! Judged by all practical standards, the value of my mathematical life is nil."

The apology is primarily addressed to non-mathematicians and considerable space is occupied with an attempt to explain the nature of 'real' mathematics, what its value is, and why it is worthy of cultivation even though it is so entirely useless. But we fear most readers will hardly gain any clear idea how the 'trivial' and potentially harmful branches of mathematics are distinguished from the 'real', useless, and therefore entirely harmless. Incidentally, some statements are likely to provoke lively dissent. For example, while claiming that the work of the mathematician is creative and akin to that of the artist or poet in possessing an aesthetic value, it is maintained that it is much more enduring, for the mathematician makes patterns with ideas and these last longer than those made with words, colours, or forms. "Archimedes will be remembered when Aeschylus is forgotten, because languages die and mathematical ideas do not."

It may be so, but we imagine that many will continue to accept as no empty boast the line written by another poet: *Exegi monumentum aere perennius*. Further, the mathematician does not work with ideas only nor the poet with words only. Both work with ideas and methods of expressing these ideas, and the form of expression used by the one may be as durable as that used by the other.

Not the least interesting part of the apology is the autobiographical section. It suggests that Prof. Hardy has reaped from mathematics those advantages which a famous Oxford Dean assured his congregation would be derived from a study of Greek.

Finally, a hope may be expressed that the professor will find some opportunity for elaborating his views on 'mathematical reality'. In spite of his modest disclaimer of competence to deal with this matter, it is certain that any contribution he made to the discussion of this difficult subject would be of great value.

* **A Mathematician's Apology.** By G. H. HARDY. (3s. 6d. net. Cambridge University Press.)

SEARCHLIGHTS ON THE WAR

THESE three books* are both interesting and provocative. *The Lesson of London* is a first-hand account by a distinguished journalist of the effect of the first heavy air raids upon London. He condemns the failure of the Government to build deep shelters, to equip shelters with the necessary sanitary and medical facilities, and to provide accommodation and food on a sufficiently large scale for the

* **The Searchlight Books.**—1. The Lion and the Unicorn: Socialism and the English Genius. By G. ORWELL. 2. Offensive Against Germany. By S. HAFFNER. 3. The Lesson of London. By R. CALDER. (2s. net. each. Secker & Warburg.)

(*Continued on page* 212)

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homeless. This neglect was all the more amazing as the emergency hospital services were organized on the basis of an estimated number of casualties which far exceeded the actual figures. The main cause of the failure was lack of co-operation among the Government departments, among the local authorities, and between the Government departments and the local authorities. Any scheme of post-war reconstruction must reorganize our system of local government areas, and readjust the relation of local authorities to the central government. The story reveals the magnificent courage of the people of London, and the heroism and leadership shown by such people as Father John Groser. The spirit which expressed itself in the words of a docker " We are all in it together " must be carried on from war into peace.

The Lion and the Unicorn is divided into three parts. Part I attempts an analysis of our social conditions, our strength, and our weaknesses. " In moments of crisis we feel and act as one family, but the wrong members are in control." Part II is a plea for a greater degree of social and economic justice in our national life ; and Part III sets out what, in the author's view, is a simple and a concrete policy which English people, who do not love revolution and yet are not frightened by the bogy of Socialism, might be induced to follow.

The author of *Offensive Against Germany* describes himself as coming from a family of Prussian civil servants. " But for the Nazis I should probably be a junior official in some German Ministry to-day." He criticizes severely what he regards as the weaknesses of our past diplomacy. He recommends a stronger offensive, though some of his recommendations are extreme. If we adopted them we might gain a military advantage, but we should certainly lose the sympathy and support of millions of people, both in occupied and in neutral countries. On the propaganda front also there is need of a stronger offensive. Germany is much more vulnerable to a moral attack than appears on the surface, and the latent opposition to Nazism in Germany must be aroused. This can be done only by making it clear that Britain's aim in the war is to make it possible for all the peoples of Europe, including the Germans, to live in security and peace. An intensive propaganda should be carried on through leaflets that can easily be read on the ground, smuggled newspapers, and a number of high-power wireless stations. This, in the author's view, is the only way in which the war can be shortened. " England's propaganda offensive against Germany is overdue. Start it now."

Other volumes are in preparation, including *The End of the Public Schools*, by T. C. Worsley.

THE HUMAN MIND

By T. RAYMONT

THE short title of this book, *The Human Mind*,* suggests an academic treatise on psychology, most likely with a leaning towards one of several schools of opinion. But the full title raises a doubt. The author is in fact first a doctor, and then a psychologist. He might be called a medical psychologist, but he prefers to call himself a physician in psychological medicine, and the distinction is significant. His aim is the practical one of ministering to a mind diseased, and he studies the human mind, normal and abnormal, because he wants to cure his patient. For this reason the reader accustomed to the academic type of psychology, when he opens this book, may feel in a strange atmosphere. He will be struck by the difference of emphasis and of terminology, and by the independence of the doctor turned psychologist. These were marked features of Dr. Mackenzie's previous work entitled *The Clash of Temperaments*, reviewed in this journal at the time of publication. That work, as was then pointed out, had a message for teachers among other folk, and the same remark may justly be made of the new book. Take, for example, the author's fundamental distinction between the immediate and the deliberate type of personality, the type that is eager to get things done, and the type that prefers to wait and see—the type that scorns the saying " fools rush in where angels fear to tread ", and the type that disdains the motto " he who hesitates is lost ". Many examples are quoted to show that both immediates and deliberates have their contribution to make. But troubles arise when both types are markedly represented in the same household or on the same staff. Though they may mean well they are unable to avoid disagreement and worry. Here the physician in psychological medicine may have something to say, and, if he can get each side to understand the psychological situation, he has gone far towards winning his case.

The author has added, as an interesting after-thought, a chapter on mind and the national emergency. Dictators, he says, are fortunately ignorant of psychology, and rely on what has been called a war of nerves, on ' the brutalities of common sense '. They fail to distinguish between temporary anxiety, which increases achievement, and persistent anxiety, which has the opposite effect. Thus the temporary anxiety caused by a raid " excites an effort to get under cover as quickly as possible, and very little else ". Therein, says the author, lies our confidence, " that Hitler, genius or no, mad or sane, is a common-sense brute and, technically, a psychological ignoramus ". Much has happened since this final chapter was written, but what has happened probably causes Dr. Mackenzie to adhere to his views as strongly as ever. He is to be congratulated on having written an important and a timely book.

* **The Human Mind : the Organ of Thought in Function and Dysfunction.** By Dr. M. MACKENZIE. (7s. 6d. Churchill.)

THE BIBLE IN THE CLASS-ROOM

By B. A. YEAXLEE, O.B.E., M.A., B.Litt., Ph.D., Reader in Educational Psychology, Oxford University

THE present-day teacher of Divinity, even though he may not claim to be in any sense a specialist, is perforce something of a theologian, an archæologist, and a student of world religions. Apart from the demands of modern syllabuses, intelligent boys and girls ask questions which cannot be answered on the old, and apparently simple, basis of " The Bible, without note or comment ". The teacher himself, having no time for intensive and voluminous reading, needs sound guides who will take him quickly and surely to the heart of the problems raised by the very use of the Bible as the classic of the Christian religion.

Thus he must be prepared to say something clear and convincing, and not merely conventional or obscurantist, about what is meant by revelation. He will probably want a little book which he can with confidence put into the hands of thoughtful boys and girls who know something of the scientific outlook and are already acquainted with writers like Julian Huxley and H. G. Wells. He will find nothing better, for himself or for his pupils, than Mr. Spurr's *Can We Know God ?*[1] It is vigorous, well reasoned, and positive, the answer of a mind richly furnished and independent, catholic, and not polemical. It shows how God makes Himself known through nature and history, why and in what sense the self-utterance of God in Jesus Christ is final yet continuous, and it leaves us not with a dogma but with a certainty concerning our own experience.

Another frequent question in the form-room is whether after all Christianity should be regarded as more than one among the great religions which in different ways teach essentially the same thing. Indeed, is it not the case that each religion has its own contribution to make to our knowledge of the truth, and that each, not excluding Christianity,

[1] **Can We Know God ?** By F. C. SPURR. (The Quest Library.) (2s. net. R.T.S.-Lutterworth Press.)

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lacks something which another offers? Small books which attempt to deal with all the world religions are particularly perilous. They are inevitably superficial and scrappy, and they are apt to be tendentious. It is better to take one religion at a time, and more thoroughly. Prof. E. D. Edwards' *Confucius*,[2] in the "What Did They Teach" series, is an excellent example of clear, concise, and objective exposition based on first-hand knowledge of the language and literature involved, but written for the general reader. It sets Confucius against the history of Chinese civilization and culture, and says frankly at the outset that Confucius "was concerned, not with religion but with ethics, and aimed not at the salvation of the soul, but at the restoration of order in society and the state". This does not make Confucius any the less interesting and significant as a man, a teacher, and a creative influence in the development of one of the greatest peoples that have played—and will play—a vital part in the story of human progress. Social virtue through a sense of duty and fellow-feeling (intellectual, not emotional) are the key-notes which Dr. Edwards finds in the *Analects*, and she shows how, while Confucius did not envisage a general system of education, he equated the virtuous man with the educated man. Not the least illuminating and valuable parts of the book are those which bring out educational principles in which Confucius is not far from the moderns, especially in making family relationships the matrix from which all else can be shaped—though of course he had no knowledge of the psychological facts upon which our current theories are founded.

Within the Bible itself, and especially in the Old Testament, there is much that we are only beginning to understand in the light of recent excavation of ancient cities. The date of the fall of Jeri ho, for example, is of more than historical interest and importance. If Prof. John Garstang is right in maintaining that this occurred between 1400 and 1385 B.C., Moses owed nothing to the monotheistic influence of Akhnaten, who ruled Egypt a generation later. In *The Story of Jericho*,[3] Dr. Garstang and Mr. J. B. E. Garstang give a fascinating account of their discoveries on the site of a city that went back to the Bronze Age in 3000 B.C. The photographs enable us to enter fully into the nature of the work that has been done, and the text sets forth vividly the experiences of the Jewish people at one of the great crises in their history.

[2] **Confucius.** By Prof. E. D. EDWARDS. (What did they Teach?) (5s. net. Blackie.)

[3] **The Story of Jericho.** By J. GARSTANG and J. B. E. GARSTANG. (8s. 6d. net. Hodder & Stoughton.)

Classics

Greece and Rome

(3s. each number. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)

Both the October 1940 number of this useful magazine, and the issue for February of this year, are before us. Space forbids more than a brief notice, but we may call attention to the following articles. In the October number there are three—Euripides and the Puritan Movement; A Roman's View of Art; and a description of the 'Mosella' of Anoonius. The writer of this last essay does not appear to have met with an edition of this delightful poem, published in 1933, with an introductory note by Dr. J. W. Mackail. It appeared in the King's Printers series, published by Eyre & Spottiswoode. Incidentally, we may remark that it was perhaps the first complete edition of the 'Mosella' to be published in this country. In the February number we note an excellent little article on Strabo, by Prof. G. C. Richards, and a delightful little paper by J. H. Jones on John Owen, the Epigrammatist. It is good to find some notice taken of scholars who wrote in Latin after the Renaissance. We understand that, in future, the size of *Greece and Rome* will be reduced, owing to paper shortage, and book reviews will have to be curtailed.

Translations from Horace, Juvenal and Montaigne, with Two Imaginary Conversations

By R. C. TREVELYAN. (7s. 6d. net. Cambridge University Press.)

This is quite a delectable *olla podrida*, which may well receive a welcome from those who love to turn the pages of old volumes. What have we then, here? First of all, four of Horace's satires, the whole of his epistles, and the Ars Poetica; next the third satire of Juvenal; following this a couple of essays from Montaigne; and finally two imaginary conversations, one between Horace and Tibullus, the other between Horace and his friendly patron Maecenas. If we must make a choice among these dainties, we are inclined to plump for the conversations, which are touched off with rare skill and—what is more—insight and sympathy. In translating Horace and Juvenal, Mr. Trevelyan has employed the ten-syllabled blank verse line, though in a few cases he has preferred what he calls "the more difficult fourteen-syllabled verse", to make translation easier. He has been most skilful in rendering the Latin so closely; there is no padding-out. The present reviewer has compared, for example, the rendering of Juvenal with Lewis's prose (all but literal) version, and has been surprised to find how near Mr. Trevelyan gets to literality, yet without giving us a bald piece of work. But we think, though others may differ, that a satirist like Juvenal, at least, ought to be rendered into heroic couplets, à la Pope. Gifford's spirited paraphrase gives one the 'feel' of the Roman satirist, which Mr. Trevelyan's rendering does not. Blank verse does not give us the needed snap and point of the Popian measure. Perhaps Conington felt the same when he translated Horace's satires and epistles into rhymed heroics; and, we think, justly. We do not care for Mr. Trevelyan's blank verse; his predilection for hypermetric lines is only too evident. The essays of Montaigne in their English dress read pleasantly, though here and there the rendering seems to drag a little: but this is rare; and the version as a whole is a model of exactness. Perhaps Mr. Trevelyan will some day give us a good verse translation of Propertius: it is a desideratum.

Latin for Secondary Schools

By Prof. D. E. HAMILTON and Prof. J. O. CARLISLE. ($1.00. 6s. Toronto: Gage; London: Nelson.)

Here we have another of those carefully 'graded' manuals which are so fashionable nowadays, but it presents some new features which rather mark it out as likely to prove valuable in secondary schools. One of these features consists in giving learners a number of simple essays on such matters as childhood in Rome, family life, schools, games, dress, houses, books, methods of government: these may be read with pleasure, and will certainly awake some living interest in the minds of beginners. But perhaps the outstanding feature is the number of illustrations; most of these—and there must be 150 or more—are well chosen, but some are purely imaginary—*e.g.* a Roman galley coming into harbour, Cornelia and her children. There are four useful maps. The extracts for translation are well selected, the grammatical sections adequate, and the vocabularies excellent.

First Year Latin Reader

By C. O. HEALEY. (2s. 6d. Longmans.)

This is quite a good little book of its kind, with the usual equipment of translation, grammar, sentences for translation from English into Latin, and a carefully selected vocabulary. Part I deals with 'private life'; Part II stories from Roman history; Part III completes the volume. There are illustrations, some useful, some (it seems to us) unnecessary. But, frankly, there are far too many of these easy 'readers' in the market, and the spate of them shows no signs of lessening. That, however, is no reflection on Mr. Healey's manual, which no doubt will be found useful in preparatory classes.

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English

Shakespeare

By M. VAN DOREN. (12s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

One might have thought that all that can be said about Shakespeare had already been said. The entries of writings about him in *The Cambridge Bibliography of English Literature* cover 69 pages. But here is a new book which every school in which Shakespeare is read and studied, that is to say, every school above the primary stage, should have upon its library shelves. As Sir Hugh Walpole says in his Foreword, Mr. van Doren " is a splendid friend and companion for the ordinary not unintelligent reader who can share his discoveries and his excitements " : his criticisms are " always honest, intelligent, and modest ", and, coming from an American poet, have a " freshness and virility lacking sometimes in Britain ". His treatment of the sonnets is perhaps a little disappointing. He describes the sonnet beginning " When to the sessions of sweet silent thought " as " one of the perfect English poems, though it is not among the mighty ones ", and finds the effect of several of the sonnets marred by the failure or comparative voicelessness of the final couplet. He has something worth while to say about all the plays, even about those which he describes as " unfeeling ", like *Titus Andronicus*, or " unsuccessful " like *All's Well that Ends Well*, *Measure for Measure*, and *The Comedy of Errors*. He writes with real mastery about the plays for which he has obviously a passionate admiration—*Henry VI*, *King Lear*, *Macbeth*. On page 257 " sticking-point " is a misquotation for " sticking-place ". In this volume the ordinary reader of Shakespeare will find both instruction and delight.

A Short History of English Literature

By B. IFOR EVANS. (6d. net. Pelican Books.)

In attempting to bring the whole story of English Literature (from Beowulf to Belloc) within the compass of a " Pelican " book, Professor Ifor Evans has set himself a difficult task which he has carried through with skill and judgment. The book is well-balanced throughout and the necessary compression has been done without impairing its very readable quality. The freshness and vigour of the writing challenges interest and stimulates attention. Here is sound learning and criticism for less than the price of a packet of cigarettes. The public should hasten to buy such a notable war-time bargain.

A Book of Short Plays: XVth–XXth Centuries

(3s. 6d. net. For the English Association by the Oxford University Press.)

This is an interesting collection of short plays suitable for home reading and for study in class. They illustrate certain aspects of the development of English drama from the fifteenth to the twentieth centuries. There are a preface, introductory notes to each play, and glossarial notes, all admirable, brief, and to the point. The volume includes *Abraham and Isaac*, *Everyman*, *The Play of the Wether*, *A Yorkshire Tragedy*, *The Inner Temple Masque*, *St. Patrick's Day*, with plays of Tennyson, Synge, Baring, Housman, Barrie, Clifford Bax, and Naomi Mitchison. The English Association express the hope that the volume will be of interest and use to students, community players, and readers generally : we feel sure that this hope will be realized.

The Oxford University Press has purchased all rights in the Home University Library and became its publishers on April 1, 1941. This well-known series was started by Williams & Norgate in 1910, and passed in 1928 to Messrs. Thornton Butterworth. Many of its volumes have become classics—Ilbert's *Parliament*, Geldart's *Elements of English Law*, Fisher's *Napoleon*, Thompson's *Introduction to Science*, Strachey's *Landmarks in French Literature*, and many others. Announcements of new volumes will be made from time to time.

History

Lies as Allies, or Hitler at War

By Viscount MAUGHAM. (Ppr. 6d. net. Boards, 1s. net. Oxford University Press.)

It seems a little late in the day to prove at length that Hitler is the world's liar. It would have been more to the point if Lord Maugham had published such an indictment when he was a member of Mr. Chamberlain's ministry, and when every one outside that government and its supporters was sufficiently convinced of the folly of appeasement. Moreover, the proof has already been set out, both in official documents, and in Mr. W. A. Sinclair's broadcast talks (published as *The Voice of the Nazi*). However, it is convenient to have a number of Hitler's lies clearly exposed, side by side with the true facts ; and it is just as well to remind people, when they may get war-weary, that no terms are possible with such a man. In particular, his promises of the " New Order for Europe " may deceive the unwary. As the author remarks, " Nothing we have heard or know of Hitler and of his New Order reveals a gleam of hope in the future for those who trust him, since under any dominion according to his doctrines no one will be permitted to discuss the problem of a happier world. He has imprisoned the bodies of countless men ; the minds of all he seeks to put in chains."

How the Colonies joined the Empire

By W. A. WELLS. Foreword by Brigadier-General LORD CROFT, C.M.G., and Epilogue by The Rt. Hon. L. S. AMERY, M.P. (6d. net. Eyre & Spottiswoode.)

Mr. Wells' useful and timely booklet would have served its purpose better either with no foreword at all or with one written in a less self-righteous and adulatory vein than that adopted by Lord Croft. Is it wise, for instance, in a situation where India need not be dragged in at all, to speak of the " folly of Congress " ? Also on the same page to refer to Indians as " the native races " ? Lord Croft seems to suffer from a curious and apparently incurable blindness to the less pleasant realities of Colonial Empire and claims altogether too much. There is a great deal in the record for which we can claim credit, but he only weakens the case, even where it is strong, by the ascription of so much virtue.

Mr. Wells sets out the facts simply and concisely. Though he is less one-sided than Lord Croft, some omissions are significant and bias is too often evident ; against the Boers for instance. We find no reference anywhere to the slave trade, trusteeship is not adequately explained, and the treatment received by Crown Colonies in the Ottawa Agreements of 1932 is not mentioned.

Loyalty of the Colonies in this great trial is beyond all doubt and that in itself is a great tribute. There is, therefore, all the less reason for hesitation in telling the whole truth without bias.

What is Democracy ?

By G. F. POWELL. (1s. net. Dent.)

This is an essay in the Socratic method reversed. The questioner begins his catechism armed with nothing but ignorance and a healthy scepticism, and is taken through a logical course in the politics and ideals of democratic freedom, worked out in masterly little answers, illustrated by the more deliciously satirical of Low's cartoons. The book is an admirable ' short cut ' for those who would be well informed and well primed at short notice and small expense.

History in the Making

By HELEN M. MADELEY. Book 3 : The Servants of Man. (2s. 8d. Pitman.)

An interesting and original book, well written and excelt lently illustrated. It consists of two parts. The first treas- of trackways and modes of travel—roads, bridges, coaches, sedan chairs, and so on. The second describes houses and housekeeping at different periods of our national history.

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Miscellany

Challenge to Youth : based upon an Address delivered at Vaughan College, Leicester

By H. LYON. (1s. net. Christophers.)

This lecture, by the Headmaster of Rugby, given at Vaughan College, Leicester, in the summer, ranks with the famous Chatham House speech of Lord Halifax. Its argument is rooted in the concrete facts of the present distresses; and its conclusions have all the dignity and placidity of great writing. " Lip-service to Christian ideals ", says the author at the end, " is a dangerous thing, more dangerous than open hostility to them . . . Christianity cannot of itself solve our political problems, but the Christian spirit can at every turn point us along one path and close another. . . . We are not thereby given the wit to devise solutions, but we are given a criterion by which to judge all that are offered."

I Believe in Democracy: Addresses Broadcast in the B.B.C. Empire Programme on Mondays from May 20th to June 24th, 1940

By A. D. LINDSAY. (2s. net. Oxford University Press.)

This little collection of seven broadcasts, by the Master of Balliol, will rank with the address on " The Challenge to Youth " by the Headmaster of Rugby, and the chapter on Democracy by Lord Stamp in the *Year Book of Education* for 1939, already reviewed in this *Journal*.

The style and concreteness of approach, and the telling use of vivid illustration, make them a model of teaching-insight. The *motif* throughout is epitomized in the following passage : " We can give the lie triumphantly to those accusations (of effeteness, &c.) only if we are clear that the democracies are fighting for something other than possession or the right to be left alone ; that we are fighting to preserve a heroic something—the soul of democracy—and are intending, if need be, to go down fighting for it. . . . Not that one kind of government is better than another, but that the aim and purpose of all government ought to be to increase freedom, to encourage and protect all the free voluntary activities of men and women in society. . . . Democracy is a theory of society, not a theory of government."

The challenges to-day are fourfold : the non-democratic organization of industrialized labour, the destruction of natural craftsmanship, the interdependence of man and man, and the capacity of dictatorships to act *speedily* to meet new conditions. This throws into relief the point so often made by Prof. Madariaga—that democracy needs leadership more than does any other form of society or government. And it calls to mind the reflection recently made in George Orwell's *Swastika Night*, that the problem for democracy is, " to survive long enough to produce character in a sufficient number of people ". These broadcasts face this question squarely and bravely.

Liberty: Principles and Practice

By the Rt. Hon. VISCOUNT SAMUEL. (6d. net. Longmans.)

This address, delivered to French teachers visiting London in April 1939, is a stimulating and witty commentary on the famous remark : " Write a Constitution ? You might as well ask me to build a tree."

Lord Samuel distinguishes four kinds of liberty : national, constitutional (or political), economic, and personal. The forms are not identical, and they may frequently conflict—though the conflict as a rule is not one of " for-or-against " liberty, so much as " how much of which kind ? " Hence the paradox that more law may indeed mean greater liberty.

He stresses the notorious indifference of the British to abstract principles. We are not logical, &c. To-day no party in England holds to *laissez-faire* as a principle ; but on the other hand no party holds to its opposite as a logical conclusion. Order is essential, and individual liberty has obvious limits beyond which the result is anarchy. But " We prefer compromise, we prefer balance ". The symbol of English thought on liberty is " the constitutional king ". We eschew metaphysics ; we declare the State as an entity to be " an illusion " ; we reject Marxian materialism as " an empty theory " ; we denounce dictatorship as " always evil " ; of blood and soil we ask " Why on earth ? " We seek our liberty and welfare by " whatever means it can be obtained ", and above all through individual political and social service.

Lord Samuel's pamphlet is a charming example of his own terms of reference. He avoids definition—but he is crystal clear.

The British Social Services

By A. D. K. OWEN. (1s. net. For the British Council by Longmans.)

A very attractive and useful outline. The historical introduction occupies sixteen pages. It is followed by a sketch of the educational services, public health, the treatment of physical and mental defects, housing, unemployment, pensions. The photographic plates are clear and discriminating ; and the diagrams are an integral part of the text. The text itself is by its nature close reading, for there are masses of information packed into small compass. But the booklet is certainly successful in its aim at clarity, combined with brevity and attractive format.

The Seasons and the Gardener: a Book for Children

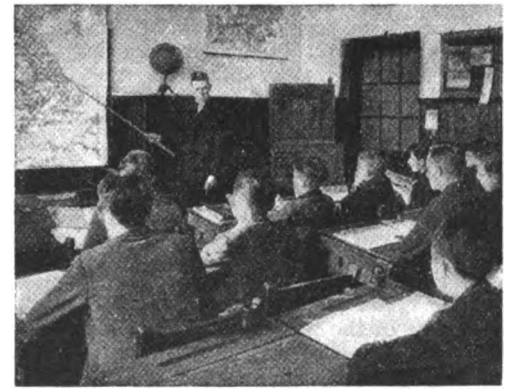
Written by H. E. BATES and illustrated with drawings by C. F. TUNNICLIFFE. (6s. net. Cambridge University Press.)

This is a practical handbook for the young gardener. It is, however, more than that. It is written by a nature lover who has much of interest to say about the work of the gardener and about the insects, reptiles, animals, and birds which help and hinder his work. The illustrations add to the charm of the book.

For the Young Idea

BY IVOR BROWN

This photograph was one of two printed in The Listener to illustrate a talk by Ivor Brown entitled "For the Young Idea", in which he explained the work of school broadcasts. The Listener regularly contains talks and articles of immense value to teachers. Your newsagent will supply it.



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Music

Three Motets for Unaccompanied Chorus

1. "I am weary of my groaning." 2. "The Lord is my Shepherd." 3. "O Praise God in His Holiness." By E. DENT. (1s., 8d., 5d. respectively. Oxford University Press.)

These are works which only good choirs should attempt. No. 1 (eighteen pages long) is dramatic in character and full of dynamic changes, while No. 2 is wistful and contemplative. No. 3, in spite of its eight parts, is perhaps the least difficult to sing. It pulses with jubilation throughout and were it written for orchestra instead of the voice it would surely be entrusted mainly to the brass. Needless to say, the treatment is scholarly throughout.

Song of the Countrywomen

Words by MARGARET CROPPER. Music by W. L. REED. (6d. Oxford University Press.)

This song, dedicated to the Associated Countrywomen of the world, is an instance of fine words wedded to fine music. Though set in two parts it is equally effective if sung as a unison song, but its long phrases need good breath control, and its broad vowels clear shaping. Orchestral score and parts may be hired from the publishers.

Letters to a Musical Boy

By M. BRUXNER. (7s. 6d. net. Oxford University Press.)

How fortunate is the lot of the musically minded youth of to-day! Not only is delightful music of all kinds written for him by some of our most talented composers, but also he is taken into the confidence of experienced musicians and initiated into some of the mysteries of their 'trade'. This book, written in a pleasant, conversational style, lets us into some of these secrets and covers a wide range of musical subjects. Composers, conductors, soloists, and organists (among others) are discussed with good humour and sense which should delight the "musical boy" and indeed every one who is in the least interested in music. It includes a carefully selected list of reference books though the price and name of publisher are missing. In a book which deals with music one would expect a few musical illustrations, but in this there are none—except some woodcuts of musical instruments, which, however excellent, are no satisfactory substitute for illustrations of the text. It is much to be hoped that the book may be made available in a cheaper edition, for it deserves a very wide circulation.

A First Song Book

Compiled by E. FOSBROOKE ALLEN. Vocal and Piano Parts. (6s. net. Nelson.)

There are nowadays many song books for young children, but few in which all the songs are of a uniformly high standard. This is certainly one of the exceptions; for it contains not only a rich and varied store of traditional music and verse, but some charming modern songs as well. Moreover, the accompaniments of all the songs, though musically interesting to the expert, are simple to play and may be used without alteration for dancing, for rhythmic movement, or simply as incidental music. It is suitable for children up to the age of 9 or 10, and, quite apart from its obvious merits as an infant and junior school song-book, it would make an ideal Christmas present for a young family on music bent.

We have received from the publishers, Messrs. Joseph Williams, Ltd., a letter in regard to the review of *The Violin Class* which appeared in the April issue of *The Journal*. Our reviewer regrets that he misinterpreted the significance of the notes in small print, which are a characteristic feature of this series. The preface clearly states that notes forming semitones and minor sixths are printed in small characters, thereby aiding intonation.—ED.

Science

The Special Theory of Relativity

By Prof. H. DINGLE. (Methuen's Monographs on Physical Subjects.) (3s. 6d. net. Methuen.)

Many books have been written on the subject of relativity but this is a work of unusual interest, for it is decidedly original and exceptionally lucid. Prof. Dingle's earlier book *Through Science to Philosophy* and his recent discussion of the nature of time will have stimulated the appetite of his readers for this description of relativity. The treatment which he gives of the Special Theory is based on a somewhat novel definition of length; whether or not this is accepted by mathematical physicists it will certainly create much interest in the method of formulating length, time, mass, energy, and force. The author writes in a very persuasive fashion and is apt at illustration, and he clears away many misconceptions that have gathered round his subject. He starts from the fundamental principle that there is no meaning in absolute motion. After describing the unsuccessful attempts that have been made to observe the velocity of the Earth through the ether, he mentions as the only explanation that calls for consideration that suggested by Fitzgerald, and independently by Lorentz, that a material body moving through ether is automatically contracted by a certain factor depending on the ratio of its velocity to the velocity of light. It is this same factor which he introduces into the new definition of length, and he claims that the whole of the requirements of the Special Theory can thus be met. Further, this simple substitution at the very beginning of physics disposes of "the widespread illusion that relativity has something mystical to do with the nature of time". The choice of the method of presentation is in some degree a question of individual taste, and it will be of interest to see whether Prof. Dingle's method appeals to students and teachers of relativity.

Atoms in Action: the World of Creative Physics

By G. R. HARRISON. (12s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

It is tempting to quote at length from this very interesting and arresting book, which describes in imaginative form the results of modern physical research. If Edison's electric lamp "were still the best available, our lighting bills would now be a billion dollars a year greater than they are—either that, or we would be getting along with one-tenth the artificial light that we now use". Although the 'almighty dollar' figures prominently, perhaps too prominently for some readers, in these pages, the beneficial effects of pure scientific research are stressed in other sections, as in that on the doctor and the physicist. "One can easily imagine the joy of a patient suffering from incipient radium poisoning when the instruments show that as a result of a course of special treatments he is eliminating radium eight times as fast as previously." Or if the question is asked, "Of what possible use is Relativity?" a direct answer is that as applied in the cyclotron it helps to fight cancer and other diseases. Again, the section on the capture of melody gives a stirring account of the scientific miracle in the storing and recreation of sound. The illustrations in the book are as striking as the text, as for example the series of snapshots of a swinging golf club, the successive exposures being one hundredth of a second apart. The main theme of the author is that energy is wealth, and he concludes that man holds within his hands the power to make the world virtually what he will.

Teach Yourself Biology

By M. E. PHILLIPS and L. E. COX. (2s. 6d. net. English Universities Press.)

A useful addition to a well-known series. The approach is through function rather than structure, while the human implications of the subject are given a certain amount of attention. Simple directions for practical work are also included.

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Entries should be received by May 24. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

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ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS are awarded in March and June. Candidates must have taken previously the March or June Common Entrance Examination. A further Examination will be held at the College on March 28 and June 27. For further particulars apply the RECTOR, Beaumont College, Old Windsor, Berks.

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EXAMINATION for Scholarships and Exhibitions will be held at the College on June 3, 4 and 5. The following awards may be made: One open and two Foundation Scholarships of £100. Two open Exhibitions of £50. Four open Exhibitions of £30. Further particulars on application to the HEADMASTER'S SECRETARY, Bradfield College, Berkshire.

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AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

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Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

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CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in each July, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

CHARTERHOUSE SCHOLARSHIPS, 1941

AN Examination will be held on June 3, 4, and 5 at Charterhouse, Godalming, and at Charterhouse, London, E.C. (circumstances permitting). The Scholarships, of which not less than ten will be awarded if duly qualified candidates present themselves, are of the value of £91 10s. per annum, and are open to boys between 12 and 14 on July 15 next after the examination. Application for details and form of entry should reach the SECRETARY, Charterhouse, Godalming, before May 26.

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For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER, Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

IMPERIAL SERVICE COLLEGE

AN Examination will be held on June 3 and 4, 1941, at which at least Four Scholarships and Two Exhibitions will be offered for competition. For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Imperial Service College, Windsor.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY
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THREE Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

TWELVE to Fourteen King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

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For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

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LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

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Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

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The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS M.A. (Cantab.).

MALVERN COLLEGE

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held early in March, 1942. Up to five Scholarships of £100 and three or more of £50. A number of Exhibitions and Bursarships also will be offered to boys of all-round ability.

Candidates may take the Examination at their Preparatory Schools or at Malvern.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEADMASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in September.

MAGDALEN COLLEGE SCHOOL, OXFORD

AN Examination will be held on Monday and Tuesday, June 9 and 10, for the award of Two School Exhibitions, of £25 and £20, and one or more House Exhibitions of £20, tenable with the former. Candidates must be under 15 years of age on the day of examination. For particulars apply to the MASTER.

OUNDLE SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June. For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

STOWE

TEN Scholarships and four Bursaries are offered every summer to boys under 14 on May 1. Examination, 1941: June 4–6. Particulars from the HEADMASTER, Stowe School, Buckingham.

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AN Examination will be held in May next for Scholarships varying from £100 to £30, tenable under conditions, during a boy's School career.

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AN Examination for Eld Scholarships, value up to £80 per annum, will be held on June 10, 11 and 12. Open to Boys under 14 on May 1 next.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

WORKSOP COLLEGE, NOTTS.

AN Examination is held in May or June. Generally two Scholarships are offered of £60 each, two of £40, and two of £30. Candidates must be under 14 years of age. Full particulars and entry forms can be obtained from the HEADMASTER, Worksop College, Notts.

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AN Examination is held annually, usually in June, when six Entrance Scholarships are offered for competition, value from 40 to 100 guineas, also six Exhibitions, value 30 guineas. Leaving Exhibitions ranging in value from £65 to £30 per annum, tenable at any University or other place of higher education approved by the Governors are awarded at the end of the Summer Term.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, WALTER M. GORDON, M.A., Wrekin College.

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ENTRANCE Scholarships and Bursaries in June, 1941. Details from the HEADMASTER, W. A. SIBLY, M.A. (Oxon).

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Founded 1900

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

EVEN the Nazis, crouched above their prey, realize that soon, as the Prime Minister has said, " the New World, with all its power and might, will step forth to the rescue and liberation of the Old ". The intervention of the U.S.A. in the conflict, on the issue of which so much hangs, must increase the interdependence of the two groups of English-speaking nations. It is reasonable to look forward—as does the Legislature of Texas—to the day when they will be, in the words of John Bright, " one people and one language and one law and one faith ". Political union, however, cannot precede the economic and cultural union of which it is the expression. The future of mankind—nothing less—depends on the degree to which the United States and ourselves are able, in peace as in war, to act in concert. Common action needs common understanding—of each other's ways of life, ideas, and institutions. Here is a gigantic task of information and interpretation which will tax to the full the resources of the British Council and of the Ministry of Information. In this task *The Journal of Education* hopes to play its part.

The U.S.A. and Ourselves.

EDUCATION is, perhaps, the most important field in which the English-speaking nations need to get acquainted with one another. It was a fine idea to send medical students to the States to complete their training. Might it not be possible to dispatch a contingent of young people to study over there methods of post-war reconstruction, of social planning, and of common action? Last summer's evacuation of children was, we hope, only a minor prelude to what will happen when the Atlantic lanes are safe once more. We hope, too, that the time will come when it is considered normal for teachers, both at the school and at the university levels, to exchange posts with transatlantic colleagues. We have much to learn from America, and we believe we can offer something in exchange. Americans, stirred by the realization that the ancient courage and steadfastness of our people still endure, are eager to know more about us. Since closer contacts are not now available, we must make every effort by reading and by study to learn more about each other. The knowledge gained will inform future action.

Co-operation in Education.

IN his Report for 1940 as President of Columbia University, New York, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler is outspoken on the subject of isolation. Civilization, he says, cannot rest upon the theory that nations are separated and isolated from each other. Universities must propagate the true gospel. Dr. Butler schedules a long list of European universities no longer " significant ", including the University of Paris, " the mother of us all ", reduced to silence. Those that have survived the cataclysm should " strengthen the university tradition of knowledge, of interpretation, and of leadership in the instruction and guidance of public opinion ". Possibly Dr. Butler exaggerates the influence of the " scholars and graduates of Oxford and of Cambridge, of St. Andrews, of Edinburgh, and of Glasgow " in forming public opinion in Great Britain. These have issued few protests or even words of caution and advice during the past twenty years of facile descent into the present world. Dr. Butler has always been a strong supporter of the League of Nations. The United States, by leaving that foundling on Europe's doorstep, must take its share of the responsibility for chaos. This moral obligation is recognized by the support America is now giving in the war. If there are dangers in turning the temple of knowledge into a political forum, never has the need been greater for guidance based on trained and informed judgment.

Isolation.

THE International Institute Examinations Enquiry financed by the Carnegie Corporation of New York has now wound up its work, but after making its final grant the Corporation offered a further sum of 10,000 dollars for educational research to be paid as equivalent amounts were raised on this side. The Leverhulme Trustees very generously provided a sum of £1,000 which, with a further £1,000 provided by the Carnegie Corporation, makes a sum of £2,000 available for the

Research in Education.

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launching of a small-scale plan of study. This amount was at once offered by the Enquiry Committee to the Institute of Education of the University of London to get the scheme on foot, and was accepted subject to the condition that the university should have no liability for the scheme in excess of the money provided for it by donors. The fund is to be called the Carnegie Fund for Educational Research. As soon as conditions permit, steps will be taken to constitute a representative committee to advise the Institute on the expenditure of this £2,000 and of such other funds as may be placed at its disposal. Meanwhile it is felt that such work as can be put in hand should begin at once, and a preliminary study is being made in order to map out a field of inquiry where questions of immediate practical importance await investigation. The Institute will welcome suggestions on this head, and, as soon as a plan of procedure has been agreed upon, will be prepared, on suitable conditions, to make grants in aid of inquiries that fall within its field. The scheme here described is obviously no substitute for the national organization which is so badly needed; but it is felt that it may serve as a stimulus to the evolving of such an organization, and as provision for some useful preliminary investigation.

Religious Teaching in America.

RELIGIOUS teaching is exciting so much discussion at the present time that it becomes specially interesting to note the position in the great American Republic, with which we now stand in closer spiritual relations than ever before. The position in America, as in Britain, is the latest phase of a historical process. In many of the older American colleges there is a strong religious tradition, because they owe their existence to the Churches. In the State colleges and universities religion finds no place in the curriculum, but voluntary religious societies are active. As for the schools, the early history of the States might have led to a religious difficulty similar to that of Britain; but, as a matter of historical fact, by common consent of the American people, religious instruction has, broadly speaking, been eliminated from State-provided schools, and left to the home and the Church. This result is due by no means to America being in these matters a careless Gallio, but to an admixture of races, nations, and creeds to which there is no parallel elsewhere. The use made of the Bible in the schools is so varied that an otherwise well-educated American may be, from our point of view, hopelessly ignorant of the Bible. On the other hand, the Churches have so vigorously attacked the problem of the Sunday School as to have exerted a great influence upon the organization of Sunday Schools on this side of the Atlantic. On the general question of religious teaching in the day schools, signs are not wanting of dissatisfaction with what we used to call " the secular solution ". As Mr. Walter Lippman has expressed it—" the teacher has no subject-matter that even pretends to deal with the elementary and universal issues of human destiny ". It is obvious, however, that American teachers are teaching children the duty of service to their fellows.

The Future of Education.

THE meeting of the London Teachers' Association at the Central Hall, Westminster, on Monday, May 12, produced two speeches of first-class importance from the President of the Board of Education and the General Secretary of the National Union of Teachers. " It is my personal belief ", said Mr. Ramsbotham, " that the country will expect the planning of our education for the post-war world to be conceived on bold and generous lines. I do not think that the proposals, when they see the light of day, will be deemed to err on the side of timidity or excessive caution. You will look, I think, for something more than mere developments within the existing framework, and will expect that education shall offer an equality of opportunity really consonant with the ideals of our democratic society." Three main lines of advance would be undertaken as soon as possible after the war: the raising of the school-leaving age to 15 without exemptions; the establishment of day continuation schools; and the reform and expansion of the secondary school system so that a secondary education of a type suitable to their varying capacities might be available for all children from the age of 11. He added that full opportunity would be given to local education authorities and teachers to discuss the plans now being formulated by the Board. Sir Frederick Mander hoped that the President of the Board, in the interests of education, would " develop a priority complex and an itching palm ", and would remember that, as Plato taught, of all the great offices of State that of the Minister of Education is the greatest. There must be greater equality of opportunity. Inequalities between child and child, and between area and area, must be removed. " We have more than 300 local education authorities . . . some are fully licensed and some are only half licensed. . . . This ridiculous dualism must be brought to an end. If education is to advance there can no longer be room for Part III authorities as such." Sir Frederick promised the President on behalf of his Association all possible encouragement and support.

No Royal Commission for Education.

DISAPPOINTMENT will be caused to many educationists by the Government's decision not to set up a Royal Commission on Education. Mr. Hannah (Bilston) on April 23 asked the Prime Minister whether he would consider setting up a Royal Commission on Education, with a view to coordinating all our educational facilities, especially the public schools, in order to give every child the best opportunities which he or she is capable of using and to secure for the community the services of the best brains that every family in the country can produce. Mr. Attlee, who replied, said that in the present circumstances it would not be possible to secure the services of those representative persons who would be required to form such a Commission. Nor did the Prime Minister consider that a Royal Commission would afford the best means of considering this matter. Education constitutes one aspect of the general problem of national reconstruction which is under the consideration of the Government. We regard this reply as

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inadequate. As our readers know, we have advocated the setting up of a Royal Commission. We believe that it would be possible even in present circumstances to set up a Commission on which the local education authorities and the teachers were fully represented, and such a Commission would be able to express an authoritative opinion on the best way of securing the three main lines of advance proposed by the President of the Board as well as the equally necessary reorganization of our educational areas.

The Public School.

AT a meeting of the Royal Society of Arts on May 1 the Headmaster of Winchester read a paper on "The Future of the Public Schools". He said that the English public boarding school represented an educational method and tradition which it was desirable to preserve in as efficient a state as possible. Since, however, the supply of boarding-school places exceeded the present and probable demand, steps should be taken to make this form of education available for all boys who are fitted for it, and whose parents wished them to have it. With this object in view, its cost must be reduced. He advocated the institution of a number of State boarding-school scholarships for boys from the elementary schools. The Provost of Eton strongly disagreed with the speaker. He thought that after the war rich people would be poorer and poor people richer, and that if things were let alone they would settle themselves. The Provost spoke as though Canon Spencer Leeson had advocated State control of the public schools. This the Canon was careful not to do. Indeed, he suggested that, if the independence of the public schools was threatened, they would have to fight, though he did not make it clear whom they were to fight or how. If the Provost's views are widely shared by his fellow-governors, the establishment of the new Association of Governors of Public Schools may prove to be a serious obstacle to a reform which is as necessary in the interests of the public schools as it is in the interests of education generally. We hope to publish in the July number an address on "The Future of the Boarding School" which was delivered by Prof. Fred Clarke at the Annual Conference of Schoolmasters and College Tutors at Oxford on April 18.

Public Schools Legislation.

THAT the Public and Other Schools (War Conditions) Bill would pass the Commons with a large majority was assured. The opposition led by Mr. Aneurin Bevan was restricted by the Speaker's ruling as to the scope of the Bill. Mr. Bevan said that any one who had studied the controversy in the educational journals during the last six months would know that many people felt that the time had arrived for the public schools to be drastically remodelled, that changes were desirable in the social structure, and that the public schools should be allowed to die a natural death or even a violent death. The Act deals with the seven public schools of the 1868 to 1873 Acts and with those working under Royal Charters, together with from 300 to 400 endowed schools. The endowment of some schools contributes only from 7d. to 11d. per pupil towards an education costing from £30 to £40. Orders may be made by the Privy Council for the smaller group, and by the Board of Education for the larger group, authorizing temporary diversion of the purposes of trusts with power to make provisions for securing economy and efficiency. Under the Speaker's ruling, neither praise nor blame of the public schools appeared to be permissible; but the President of the Board of Education said the public schools had played a very important part in our educational development and in our national development, too. Mr. Ammon retorted that too much consideration was being given by the Government to the maintenance of class and caste distinctions.

Diversion of Trusts.

DIVERSION of the purposes of trusts is no new phenomenon. Owing to social changes such as the decay of apprenticeship, charitable purposes may become impracticable. Under war conditions, the award of scholarships may be impossible. Accumulated funds may be in hand. Should not available money be used for urgent needs such as evacuation or the repair of buildings damaged by enemy action? Mr. Ramsbotham stated that one very large school not far from London has had its numbers reduced by nearly half. One can imagine in such a case the difficulty of meeting overhead expenses. The public schools are not at present asking for public grants, and they represent a national economy if education is regarded as a State activity. It was suggested during the debate that the public schools are private businesses and are meeting the same difficulties during the war as thousands of private businesses. Even so, the Government has shown its desire to maintain business firms. It would be callous to turn a deaf ear to the public schools educating some 70,000 boys.

Training for Leadership.

INTERESTING contributions to the public schools question have recently appeared in *The Schoolmaster*. In the first, Dr. H. G. Stead suggests that public schools were set up to train young men in leadership at a time when social and political factors were widely different from what they are to-day. Political power was the prerogative of the landed aristocracy; so, too, was social status. These were the accepted rulers and it was *only* their sons who needed training in leadership. The function of leadership is still a function for which suitable individuals must be trained—democracy can survive only if its leaders are wise and understanding. How can we change the public school so that potential leaders may come from all sections of society irrespective of the financial position of their parents? The criterion must be capacity to lead. In the second article Mr. E. J. Orford agrees that leaders are essential, but strongly challenges the contention that there should be segregated training for leadership. Hitler laid down this principle years ago. Suppose we did reserve the public schools of the future for the training of potential leaders, who would select the candidates? And, when the chosen few have gone off, what will be the reaction of those left

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behind when they realize that they are doomed to be followers only for the rest of their lives? Again, how could the training of leaders be carried out? It is possible to train men to fit posts in a hierarchy but not to be leaders in a democracy. It is essential that we choose our own leaders, and having chosen them, that we trust them while at the same time remaining critical of them. Not segregation but mixing is what is wanted. The Fuehrer-school can be left to the dictator countries where it essentially belongs.

Traditions of Education.

LAST month we drew attention to Prof. Clarke's suggestion that there are several English traditions of education, of which the public-school tradition is one, and the 'elementary' tradition another—no less real for what it is worth. He described the latter as more social than educational, having to do with the wage-earning classes. The real function of the elementary school was during last century obscured by various factors, all tending, in the words of the late Herbert Ward, to "keep alive the idea that elementary education was a regrettable necessity, not far removed from the disagreeable duty of maintaining the indigent poor".* Since the dawn of the present century we have done a great deal towards changing all that. The position was forcefully brought home by Mr. Chuter Ede, during a recent debate in the House of Commons. He was, he said, not ashamed of the tradition of the public elementary school from which he came. It was a tradition different from that of the public school, but neither of these traditions taken by itself represented the whole sum of English history and of the English spirit. What was to be regretted was the line of cleavage which past injustices had drawn between the two. "Each of us", he declared, "had to share the traditions and privileges of the other, and a way to unite those traditions and privileges had to be worked out in the near future." These are heartening words to those who know the elementary-school tradition and its value to the nation.

The Burnham Committee.

"THE authority and standing of the Burnham Committee are definitely in danger," says *The Teachers World*. "Even if the threat to take the bonus question out of the hands of the Burnham Committee does not materialize, it is still true that a change affecting its power and usefulness may be taking place. The Burnham Committee was established in 1919 at the instance of the Board of Education to find an "orderly and progressive solution of the salary problem." . . . Experts representing the education authorities and the teachers, with the Board as an interested observer, were to meet round a table, examine all the relevant data and seek an equitable agreed solution of the salary problem. It is right and entirely proper that Burnham decisions, if they are to be generally binding, should be ratified by the constituent organizations of the consulting bodies. A new situation arises, however, if to any large extent attempts are made to define or determine decisions before consultation takes place." These words needed to be said, and they might have been stronger. The resentment caused by the announcement of the Board of Education that expenditure incurred by an authority in making war bonus payments to persons receiving salaries in excess of £260 per annum would not be recognized for grant purposes is still smouldering. Teachers will lose faith in the Burnham Committee if it is to meet (like the Reichstag) merely to register approval of decisions already taken.

* Educational System of England and Wales, p. 73.

London Libraries and the War.

CARLYLE, who expressed the opinion that "a collection of books is the best of all universities", may be regarded as a university founder, for he was the promoter of the London Library, which is celebrating its centenary. Primarily a lending library for students, possessing 470,000 volumes and more than 4,000 readers, the library has rendered signal service not only to its members but also to the world of learning at large by the publication of catalogues and bibliographies compiled by the distinguished librarian, Sir Charles Hagberg Wright. The destruction of books by enemy action has been serious. Apart from the heavy losses of publishing firms, the library of University College, London, has been severely damaged and many of its books lost. The British Museum too has been hit, and a large part of the National Central Library in Malet Place has been destroyed. This building, opened by King George V in 1933, was the gift of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. About one-third of the book stock has been lost, though fortunately the more important bibliographical records, including catalogues with three million entries, had been removed to the country at the outbreak of the war.

Dynamic Technical Education.

AN article appeared under this title in *The Times Educational Supplement* for March 15, 1941. In the issue of April 5 a very vigorous attack was made on the article in a letter which drew forth a reply from the author in the issue of April 26. The article maintained that our technical education is mainly designed for "vertical advancement", that is, part-time classes are attended by industrial workers in order that they may qualify for a better job. Many succeed, all honour to them, but it cannot be denied that the successful ones form only a very small proportion of those who attend these classes, and only a minute fraction of those who *ought* to be attending them. The author of the article pleaded for the more systematic provision of classes designed for "horizontal classification", that is, for classes that would teach workers to do their daily job better, with more skill and intelligent appreciation, as contrasted with those that train them in some type of work which at the moment they are not doing and may never have an opportunity of doing. May not technical education do something more to raise craftsmanship to the dignity which it should occupy in the new world to which we are so ardently looking?

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EDUCATION AS A LINK BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND AMERICA

By J. L. PATON, formerly High Master of Manchester Grammar School

THE sharing of a common peril and the vindication of a common principle of civilization have thrown the United States and our own country into each other's arms as never before. To corroborate in every way possible such an *entente cordiale* and to ensure its permanence is the best, if not the only way, of facilitating the resettlement of the world when Nazidom shall have been finally laid low. How far can education help ?

Both Great Britain and U.S.A. must cooperate. But before any overtures are made it will be worth while for us to think out our own position and what the possibilities are on our own side.

To begin with, Great Britain's education owes much to the U.S.A. Without going so far back as Thomas Paine, we recall Bishop James Fraser's commission in 1868 to report on elementary education in the U.S.A. This had a powerful influence in bringing about the Act of 1870. R. H. Quick's *Educational Reformers*, which first gave our reading public an account of the great movements in Europe (and incidentally had more readers in the United States than here in England), owed much to the educational writings of Dr. Barnard, and the Commission of Education in Washington. Our own Department of Special Inquiries and Reports in 1896 would never have come into being without the example of W. T. Harris, of the U.S.A. Commission. It was the American Chautauqua that begat in this country the National Home Reading Union, and this Union in turn begat the great summer meetings at Oxford, Cambridge, Edinburgh, and other university centres, bringing thus first ordinary middle-class folk, and soon after working-class folk, into the university atmosphere and into personal contact with university teachers. Then the stepping-up of our popular education with the higher grade schools, and the growth of women's education came largely through the influence of the U.S.A.

Our education has always owed much to personal gifts and endowments, but it was Carnegie and Rockefeller who set us the example of giving on a scale that is wholesale and worthy of Aristotle's ' magnificent man '. The U.S.A. on their side owe the example of international giving to Cecil Rhodes who was not satisfied with ' thinking imperially '. America's response has been on a wider scale than is generally recognized. It has been definitely post-graduate. Year by year a large number of our best Honours graduates welcome the chance given them by numerous studentships and travelling fellowships to do one year or more of post-graduate study. The great majority of these grants are given by Americans.

It is by such reciprocity that scholars on both sides of the Atlantic get to know each other and generate closer understanding. And now the 2,700 school children who have been welcomed to American homes take up gleefully the same task. Their only ' snag ' so far seems to be that their new foster parents insist on their having milk instead of their English tea. The little chap who wrote his mother, " I am staying with the kindest people and have inherited all their friends," has caught the idea. There are homes for another 10,000 as soon as the U-boat menace is overcome.

But these are comparatively the few. What we need is to get our whole system saturated with the idea that our country and America belong to each other, and once united can secure the peace of the whole world. If the wave of emotion which sweeps us along to-day is not to be spent, emotion must be fortified by knowledge, become part of ourselves, a permanent part, and translate itself into conduct. What kind of knowledge and how best it may be worked into our national curriculum is a question to be thought out carefully by teachers on both sides with mutual consultation. Already history text-books have been purged of cruder misrepresentations. Washington no longer figures as ' a rebel '. That is a preliminary, but we shall need new text-books for both American history and geography for English schools. These are pre-eminently subjects which are suitably treated in lectures. B.B.C. lectures by themselves will not be satisfactory. There must be illustrations, and there must be lecturers who can excite interest and goodwill, for it is ideas so associated that build themselves into character. Still better if the lecturer is an American teacher who is temporarily one of the staff, and has come over in exchange for a British teacher in the States. Nor must it be forgotten to have a special section in the school library for U.S.A. books and for some American counterpart, if there is such, to our own incomparable *Children's Newspaper*.

Mathematics again is a subject in which we have much to learn on both sides. There are professors whose defence of mathematics reminds one of Socrates' defence of justice as being desirable in and for itself quite apart from any practical utility they may have for common life, or physical science, or navigating the sea. It was this school of thought which in the old days held up at least 90 per cent of our school children by stubbornly defending the Euclidian ass's bridge-head. A study of the American method might still effect a great saving of time for prospective engineers. Our motto has been ' the slower, the surer '. Americans insist that the learner should have, all the time, the feeling that he is getting forward. They prefer the short road, with plenty of revision should any symptom of unsoundness betray itself.

But it is in literature that co-operation will be easiest and interest be best enlisted. Shakespeare belongs to all the world. And we have a great asset in humour. *Tom Sawyer* and *Huckleberry Finn* need no panegyric. Abraham Lincoln is as popular a hero on this side of the Atlantic as the other. Only let no biography be tolerated, however learned, which cuts out his humour. Fenimore Cooper and *Moby Dick* accumulate no dust on our library shelves. Longfellow is not one of the immortals, but youngsters learn through him to love the immortals. For older pupils, Russell Lowell's in *My Study Windows* opens up the way to appreciation of English literature from Chaucer onwards.

We must stress literature specially, for we have much leeway to make up. Our boys and girls know everything about American gangsters. Some know little else. It is high time we teachers should let our British children learn, even in the elementary stages, that Washington and not Hollywood is the capital of the U.S.A.

But, after all, schools cannot do their part unless society in general becomes more enlightened. When Dean Stanley went to America, he said that nothing impressed him so much as his own ignorance. The consciousness of ignorance is the prerequisite of knowledge. Mutual ignorance breeds misunderstanding and tension. There is a vast difference in this respect between north and south England. In the north, common folk understand Americans better than those in the south. We may talk in a superior way of the Yankee accent, but what the Americans notice when they come over is the way our educated classes mispronounce our own language. For instance, " Ow now, I hev a bad cowld."

It will make a real difference when we discover the real greatness of America. For America can hardly be anything but great. The spaciousness of her land breeds a corresponding largeness and generosity of outlook. They have hospitable minds as they have hospitable homes. They are wide awake to new ideas. Their readiness to experiment in education shows how they think out their teaching as a research scientist thinks out his problems. They have no tariff on the export or import of ideas.

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In especial they have carried through successfully two great international experiments which are as hopeful for the future of the world as our own British Commonwealth of Nations. When Lord Bryce was British Ambassador at Washington he thought out with Mr. Elihu Root an international commission which was to settle all disputes between Canada and the U.S.A. by mutual agreement. There have been many clashes of interest, especially in regard to the great water system of the inland lakes and rivers. But in no case have they failed to settle these amicably. Never once have they had to call in the arbitrator, for whom provision was made. Again, in 1926, when Europe was visibly heading for disintegration, President Roosevelt succeeded in securing the adhesion of every State in the Americas to a pact which, without any sanctions, binds every State to join in preventing any possible outbreak of war in the western hemisphere.

It is by co-operation on such lines that the two great English-speaking States can achieve the age-long hope of the human race.

GEOGRAPHY AND THE WAR IN NORTH-EAST AFRICA

By J. H. STEMBRIDGE, Geographical Editor of the Oxford University Press, and formerly Head of the Geography Department at Denstone College ; author of *The World*, *The World-Wide Geographies*, *The New Oxford Geographies*, etc.

PERHAPS in no other region of the world than northern Africa is the close relation between geography and history more clearly manifest. From time immemorial the shores of the Mediterranean have been the scene of mortal struggles between peoples. Naturally enough, for where there is sea there is trade, where there is trade there is rivalry, and where there is rivalry there is too often war. It was command of the sea that ultimately gave Rome supremacy over Carthage; it is command of the sea which, even in these days of mechanized warfare, will in the end prove to be the deciding factor in the contest between Hitler's ' new order ' and Christian civilization.

It was clearly the ambition of Mussolini, by obtaining control of the Mediterranean, to extend the Italian dominion in Africa until it embraced all the lands now possessed by Britain, France, and Spain, and so build up a new Roman Empire oversea. The explanation of the fact that he has so signally failed to retain the countries owned by Italy before his day, and even the country last acquired, is to be found in the geography of North-east Africa. Politically, that part of the continent, usually called the " Horn of Africa ", was shared among Britain, France, and Italy, and Italy had the lion's share. Her possessions, twice as large as Italy and Germany combined, extended for 1,400 miles from the northern frontier of Eritrea to the southern frontier of Italian Somaliland, and for 1,100 miles from the west of Abyssinia to the shores of the Indian Ocean.

The core of Italian East Africa, and indeed of the whole region, is the plateau of Abyssinia, which on the north stretches into Eritrea. This huge block, composed partly of volcanic rocks, rises to about 9,000 feet, though isolated peaks tower another 7,000 feet above sea-level. On all sides the plateau drops by picturesque escarpments to desert and arid lands. Only on the south-east are the slopes comparatively gentle : in this region the highlands descend, through the Ogaden and neighbouring plains, to the lowlands of Italian Somaliland, easily accessible by the valley of the Webbi Shebeli. On the east the Abyssinian table-land sinks by very steep escarpments to the arid Denakil lowland and the coast lands of Eritrea.

In the west and south-west the plateau is riven by canyons, such as that through which the Blue Nile rushes down to join its greater sister, the White Nile. Some of the canyons are almost a mile deep and measure as much as fifteen miles from rim to rim. The most remarkable geographical feature of Abyssinia, they form formidable barriers to communication in a country where transport at the best is extremely difficult.

Abyssinia lies well within the tropics, and its relatively cool climate is due to elevation rather than to latitude. But owing to the varied relief there are considerable climatic differences. For instance, in descending from the plateau to the bottom of one of the canyons, we pass from weather not unlike that of an English summer into the heat of the tropics. Though in the encircling lowlands the amount of rain is negligible, yet on the plateau it is very heavy, especially in the west. The rains, which begin towards the end of March or early in April, increase in intensity until August, slacken somewhat during September, and virtually cease in October.

The summer rains swell the waters of Lake Tana, 1,350 square miles in area, from which issues the Blue Nile, the chief river in East Africa.

And it is this stream and other Abyssinian affluents that cause the floods of the White Nile, which alone make possible the irrigation of the cotton plantations and fields of Egypt and the Sudan. The control of Lake Tana is far more than a mere Abyssinian concern, for its life-giving waters bring blessings to countless thousands of Egyptian *fellahin* and Sudanese peasant farmers.

The Abyssinian plateau, with its wealth of springs and streams, its rolling grassy downs, and its rich farmed valleys with their cornfields and vineyards, is dotted with turf-walled villages, whose conical mud huts are often clustered round a church. Agriculture is the chief occupation, and each village is a more or less self-contained unit. In contrast to the plateau, the bottoms of the canyons are clad with tropical jungle, and conditions are even more unpleasant than on the parched and torrid coast-lands of Eritrea and Somaliland.

It is not surprising, therefore, that the majority of the inhabitants of North-east Africa dwell in the highlands, and that out of a population of some 12,000,000 only a fifth live in the coastal lowlands.

Essentially a mountain people, the Abyssinians have great powers of endurance. In the course of centuries they have become acclimatized to the high altitudes, which most Europeans find trying owing to the rarefied air. In passing it may be noted that South African troops, or at least those whose homes are on the High Veld, will probably be better able to withstand the mountain climate than Britishers. It is fortunate, too, that the Imperial forces now in Italian East Africa include Indian contingents, for the blistering heat of the lands, fronting the glaring waters of the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean, is quite as trying to whites as the rarefied air of the highlands.

The Abyssinians consist of a number of tribes. Paramount among them are the Amharas who occupy the greater part of the high plateau. Of Hamitic and Semitic origin, they embraced Christianity, with its Greek-Byzantine culture, in the fourth century ; and until the Italian conquest retained their connexion with the Coptic Church of Egypt. The Gallas, some of whom are Christians, some Mohammedans, live mainly in the semi-desert and bush country in the south. They comprise about half the population of Abyssinia, and, like those true-desert people the Denakils and the Somalis, are a pastoral folk of Hamitic blood, diluted with Arab and Negro strains. The nomadic herdsmen of the desert lands wander from grazing ground to grazing ground according to the season. They pay little

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attention to boundaries, which in many districts are ill-defined, thus giving every opportunity for frontier incidents.

No natural boundaries separate Abyssinia from Eritrea, and on both sides of the border the same language is spoken by the same people, who have similar religious beliefs, customs, and traditions. Hence, apart from Italian colonists, Abyssinians inhabit the Eritrean portion of the plateau, while the coast-folk are mainly of Arab and Negro stock.

The mountainous nature of the country, and the difficulties of communication, account in large measure for the long isolation of Abyssinia, which until recent times was virtually cut off from the outside world. More accessible, and thus more easy of conquest by European powers, were the Sudan and the lands fronting the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean—Eritrea, and French, British, and Italian Somaliland.

When in the reign of the Emperor Menelik II Abyssinia awoke from her century-old sleep, she found that she had no outlet to the sea; but in 1896 the Franco-Ethiopian Company was formed to build a railway from the port of Jibuti in French Somaliland to Addis Ababa, the Abyssinian capital. Some idea of the difficulties of constructing a line from sea-level, across the desert strip, and then up through mountainous country to a height of 8,000 feet, may be gathered from the fact that the railway did not reach Addis Ababa until 1917, when the 486 miles of track were finally completed. Equally difficult conditions were encountered by the Italians in building the line from Massawa to Agordat. This railway ascends to Asmara and continues to climb up to Keren, a Moslem centre whose situation reminds one of some hilltop town in Sicily, whence it drops down to Agordat, standing in a valley opening to the Sudan.

The mountainous nature of Abyssinia favoured the rise of feudal chiefs, and prevented the establishment of a strong central authority. Thus, when the Italian invasion took place in 1935–36, the Abyssinians, disunited, ill-armed, and ill-prepared, fell easy victims to an aggressor furnished with all the appliances of modern warfare.

Prior to the Italian conquest the only outlets of Abyssinia were the Addis Ababa–Jibuti railway, and caravan tracks to neighbouring frontiers over which goods were carried by porters, mules, pack-horses, and camels.

In a land of great distances, where steep escarpments barred the way to an interior which itself presented formidable natural obstacles, the question of transport was a vital one for the Italians. So, partly with a view to developing the country, partly for strategic purposes, they set about constructing a skeleton road system. Owing to the mountainous terrain the scheme, despite its limited nature, proved a costly one. A sum of £36,000,000 was spent on motor-roads, and no less than £120,000,000 on transport facilities, aerodromes, and harbour works.

The first road to be built was one with an asphalt surface from Massawa to Asmara, the capital of Eritrea, whence it was pushed across the plateau through Makale, Amba Alagi, and Dessie, and so on to Addis Ababa. It zigzags up to Asmara, and winds backwards and forwards as it descends and ascends the canyons, or crosses the passes; but so many detours have had to be made that, though the distance from Massawa to Addis Ababa is only 500 miles in a straight line, the road linking the two is 800 miles long.

Among the roads subsequently constructed was that from Asmara to Agordat, which follows the general direction of the railway, and like it climbs up to the fortress-town of Keren, and descends to Agordat through a narrow gorge, where at one place there is a drop of 3,000 feet in five miles. From Addis Ababa a motor-road goes through Harar, a walled city, the second largest in Abyssinia, to Jijiga, an important route centre, from which it crosses the frontier to Hargeisa in British Somaliland, and continues to Berbera, the port-capital of that country. From Jijiga another highway runs to Dagabur whence it descends to Mogadishu, the capital of Italian Somaliland, through the Webbi Shebeli valley.

The upkeep of these highways is extremely heavy, and in summer they suffer considerable damage from the heavy rains. But despite the cost of construction and maintenance, the Italians held the view that motor-roads furnished a better transport system than railways. Actually the roads have proved of little use to them. On the other hand, they have facilitated the movements of Imperial

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troops, whose converging columns have advanced along them into the heart of Italian East Africa.

Sea power has played a decisive part in the campaign, for British command of the sea has prevented Italy from sending reinforcements to East Africa either through the Suez Canal or by the Cape route.

The British advance on the Italian colony began at the end of January 1941, when our troops, having previously ejected the enemy from the Sudanese cotton centre of Kassala, advanced from that town across the frontier, seized the railhead of Agordat, and pressed forward towards Keren. Set on a ridge of solid rock which drops down almost sheer on every side, Keren could be approached only from the west through the steep and precipitous gorge leading up from Agordat. But, while the Royal Air Force and the South African Air Force secured control of the air, Imperial troops captured height after height, and towards the end of March the supposedly impregnable fortress capitulated. Then the road was open to Asmara and Massawa which soon fell into British hands.

Meanwhile other mechanized forces from Kenya entered Italian Somaliland, captured Kismayu, crossed the Juba River, followed the coast road, and seized Mogadishu, having covered some 300 miles in ten days.

It was from Mogadishu that Graziani, in 1936, advanced up the Webbi Shebeli valley into Abyssinia. Our forces followed the same route and, having traversed some 700 miles in two weeks, captured Dagabur.

Five days later they occupied Jijiga. From this important focal point columns struck eastward to Hargeisa. Here they established contact with units from Berbera, which had just been captured from the Italians (who had occupied it since the previous summer) after combined sea, land, and air operations. Thanks to the opening of the Berbera–Hargeisa–Jijiga route, British troops were furnished with much-needed supplies, which enabled them to press on from Jijiga to Harar, and to occupy Diredawa, a key point on the Jibuti–Addis Ababa railway. A week after the fall of Diredawa, Imperial troops entered the Abyssinian capital.

A fortnight later, after a sharp engagement in the Kombolchia Pass, Dessie was captured. The town, some 140 miles north-east of Addis Ababa, lies at the point where the roads from Gondar to the north-west, and from the port of Assab on the Red Sea, meet the highway running north to Asmara. Having secured Dessie, South African columns pressed on towards Amba Alagi, on which Indian troops were also converging from the north. Its surrender in May marked the end of organized Italian resistance in Abyssinia.

'Mopping-up' operations in Italian East Africa are bound to be somewhat handicapped by the rainy season now in full swing. One of the reasons why the Duke of Aosta, the Italian Commander, attempted to hold out long after defeat was inevitable was because he realized that the rains must impose a slackening of the British offensive.

The conquest of Italian East Africa should not be regarded as an isolated event in the present conflict. It is not yet possible to estimate fully its importance, but, just as the campaign in Greece affected that in Libya, so the East African campaign will have repercussions throughout the Mediterranean and the Middle East, where, though geographical conditions may differ, they are bound to exercise a great influence on the ultimate course of the war.

The campaign in North-east Africa has familiarized the British public with names hitherto largely unknown to them, and some idea of the nature of the country in which this campaign has been fought has been given by articles in the Press and more particularly by occasional speakers on the radio. It is all to the good that our people at home should be in a position to appreciate the immense geographical obstacles that our forces have to surmount, and that they should be able to realize the vital influence of geography on the lives and fortunes of men, whether in peace or in war.

LEAVEN FOR EUROPE

By C. H. DOBINSON, Headmaster of King Edward's Grammar School, Five Ways, Birmingham

WHEN we have won this war, we shall be the moral leaders of Europe. A lofty position, which in our hearts we have always felt was ours, but a feeling which other states have ascribed to our conceit and hypocrisy. But this time we shall have paid the price in full, and none will be able to gainsay us. Shall we rise to it? Shall we lead? Shall we strive afresh? Or shall we, wearied, disappointed in our allies, and at heart cynical, be satisfied with those half-measures which marred our policy between 1931 and 1939: that hesitancy between two opposing courses, that eventual failure to adopt either, that success in adopting merely the worst features of both? Or shall we start that binding of humanity which will lead us eventually to a peaceful Europe?

It all depends on the schools.

English schools—perhaps most of all senior schools and secondary schools of all types, were, between 1933 and 1939, the best in the world. German schools put politics before education. Scandinavian and French schools failed to give the wide training for citizenship found in our extra-curricular activities. American schools lacked our depth of scholarship, and, through predominance of women teachers, much of the discipline which life still demands of us all. English schools were better than all these.

But, like the rich young ruler, they lacked one thing: and that almost outweighing all their possessions—a sense of purpose. There was great talk of citizenship, but it never meant much to the pupils. Religion had been allowed to give place to examination results, and these, with their selfish appeal both to the individual and the school, could inspire no crusade, and give no unity of purpose to educational thought.

Universities and schools would split hairs regarding the content of an examination syllabus, or seek an ever greater approximation to perfection in marking the cynical attempts of candidates to give the examiners what they wanted. Meanwhile, the great world cried out for the brotherhood of man, for understanding of the problems of the coloured races, in Africa, in the East Indies, in the West Indies, in India itself. And not least, millions of unemployed in Europe, and the ill-fed, ill-informed peasantry of the Balkans and Spain cried out for bread, and we gave them a stone. It were better, it seemed, that a boy should pass his School Certificate at the age of 16, and four years later should die for his country, than that he should waste one precious term in study in a school in France, or Norway, or pre-Hitlerian Germany. It was considered better for a French boy that he should gain his Baccalauréat at the appointed time, and stay in France to join the squabbles of the Communists and the Croix de Feu, than that he should travel abroad, spending vital francs in discovering that the social problems of France were but part of those of Europe, though *la patrie* was no longer keeping pace with her rivals in her handling of her problems, but losing inches with every pace. What do they know of France, that only France have known? Yet better, it was thought, the martyrdom of France, the bloody crushing of her ill-equipped infantry by the German tanks, than a change in the purpose of education. If they who are respon-

(*Continued on page* 232)

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sible for the youth of a nation will not look ahead, to whom shall the task be given ? So the blind leaders of the blind have led us all into the pit.

When the wives and children of the ill-paid *poilu* began to feel the pinch of war, we started an Anglo-French fund, raised by voluntary subscription. When things looked graver still, the Government decided to promote close co-operation between the schools of England and France, real exchanges between pupils and teachers, on a national instead of a pin-point basis. And the President of the Board of Education was sent to Paris to meet his opposite number and to plan *in detail* these great things for which many of us, during the years of war preparation, had clamoured, and clamoured in vain. (A few days later, the President of the Board of Education was changed.) Oh, damnable mockery ! Having starved the patient into galloping consumption, the quack doctor holds out the vision of a country cottage and a rose-garden when the patient recovers. Hard business men, who have made it their annual gloating to cut the education estimates of county boroughs and cities, who have rejected every request for financial assistance to schemes of international exchange of pupils, and even of any scholarships for sixth-form boys and girls to be held for a term abroad, now pour out their coffers to buy tanks and guns and Spitfires—all of which might have been unnecessary, had this country chosen to lead the youth of Scandinavia and Holland and Belgium and France along the paths of understanding and co-operation, instead of leaving them to the devices of the Nazis.

In 1938, a Norwegian headmaster begged me to exchange pupils with his school, because the Germans were promoting such vigorous exchange that Norwegian boys were beginning to take all their leadership from Germany. In July, 1938, a party of forty Swedish schoolboys, willing, to pay £3 a week to live in the homes of English schoolboys were, with the utmost difficulty, found accommodation in two great cities. The majority of headmasters were not interested in such things : " world leadership " is not on the curriculum, nor in most schools any of its little brothers or sisters, such as Scouts or Guides.

Ever since the last war, and particularly in the last ten pre-war years, Finland and the three Scandinavian countries have sought to make exchanges and educational visits to this country, on a scale far transcending anything that has been done. But in this country, there has been no official corresponding response. It has all been left to the individual teacher, or, very occasionally, to the individual headmaster, and in general from those above there has been more hindrance than help, and a grave warning not to allow anything to affect the examination results.

So we see the folly of our pre-war educational ways, especially in relation to Scandinavia and France. Like Lord Ullin, John Bull stands wringing his hands by the shore :

> " 'Twas vain ! The wild waves lashed the shore,
> Return or aid preventing ;
> The waters wild went o'er his child,
> And he was left lamenting."

Lamentation. Repentance. Yes, and a change of heart and a new vision. No co-operation between nations of Europe will last that is not based on understanding and real friendship between the young people of the nations, especially between potential leaders. This self-evident truth has not yet penetrated the official mind. It is understood by the working-classes of most nations ; it is understood by many women teachers and by some children in schools. But to those who direct the policy of the Board of Education, it is more unknown than the Americas to the councils of Spain which rejected the heresies of Columbus. So it has always been ; to babes and sucklings have been revealed truths that from the wise were hidden. It has not yet dawned upon the dismal corridors of the Board of Education in Whitehall that in them lies the future of the world, and that those gloomy passages should be brought to life by the chatter of tongues of all nations : that there there should be continual coming and going—not of local educational authority officials wrestling with reduced educational estimates—but of foreign leaders of educational thought : Swedish headmistresses, Dutch headmasters, directors of education of great cities such as Lyons, Budapest, Bucharest, and representatives of all nations who will cooperate with us to build a new world.

The time for all this work to be done, or rather attempted, by unsponsored individuals, is over. The Government must take responsibility for the policy and must foot the bill. We who have poured out our treasure in a welter of futile destruction twice in a life-time, are we to listen again to the Satanic lie, that even Beelzebub, the prince of devils, cannot tell without blushing—the lie that we have no money with which to make peace ? God and all angels forbid. Peace is not the state of semi-conscious drowsiness that comes over one on a hot summer afternoon, when only the buzzing of bees tells of industry. No. International peace is the work of active co-operation of peoples of the world in the provision to all mankind of such social conditions as promote the maximum realization of physical and intellectual life. Asia and Africa alone offer European man an almost infinite field for co-operation in bringing life, true life, to humanity. " I am come that they might have life, and that they might have it more abundantly."

Africa and Asia will provide work for centuries. Meanwhile post-war Europe will provide many of the young in spirit with enough problems to wrestle with in their life-time. But the young will work together only if they have, to some extent, been educated together : if English and French boys and girls have spent a term in each other's schools, have lived in each other's homes, have seen life run its same gamut of emotions in a foreign home, have made friends, with whom one can share one's innermost thoughts, among those who speak another language.

To this end we must, between country and country, adjust our dates of examinations, adjust our school vacations, adjust our whole educational system, so that children of the right ages and right qualities can mingle with opposite numbers in other lands. The details of such a policy can all be worked out, if the will is forthcoming. The ramifications of such a policy are infinite, and almost all of them beneficent. We must not let the chicken-hearted bureaucrat boggle at, and retreat before, the difficulties which will undoubtedly have to be overcome, or the vested interests of the Examination Boards which will oppose all change. Nor must the Trade Unions of headmasters or assistant masters, or any other group of teachers, be allowed to sabotage any such developments, if they should wish to do so, through incrustation of their ideas. Their job is to prepare youth for life, and, without peace in Europe and the removal of the threat of war, there is no life worth living for the young.

English schools, therefore, must shoulder their burden—to lead the nations of Europe in the ways of freedom, of justice, of equity and of elected government. Is not this a great enough cause to inspire us all ? Will it not enable us to sink petty differences, and to make sacrifices, to toil with zest and hope ?

Let us have purpose ! A driving sense of urgent purpose in the name of God-inspired humanity. And then our schools will not have existed in vain.

" Nothing astonishes me more than the utter impotence of unaided force to organize anything whatever. . . . There are only two great powers in the world, the sword and the spirit, and in the long run the spirit always wins."

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

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AN INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING THROUGH THE STUDY OF HISTORY

By a GERMAN PROFESSOR

THE splendid freedom enjoyed by the teachers in this country goes far to counteract the tendencies in continental systems toward the dogmatization of history. But this freedom is limited by the system of external examinations, which compels the teacher to a choice of historical facts dependent on his prescience of what the examiners may include in their papers. Therefore national history preponderates in the schools of this country as elsewhere, and there are, no doubt, good pedagogical reasons for it. Nevertheless, there is a very serious political and even moral problem involved ; and a confined national outlook on history is partly responsible for national narrow-mindedness. When adolescents, perhaps after a short period of puberty-revolt, apprehend many of the values of civilization, it is with the facts of history, such as they are known to them, wherewith they build up their own ideas of the world and of life. What they do not know does not exist for them. It is not enough to look on the history of other nations only in connexion with the history of one's own nation, and a history of foreign countries, put before the pupils in the way we are accustomed to treat our national history, would not find the necessary interest and might lead only to confusion. But surely, there is a way to sail between the danger of an exclusive nationalism, and the no less danger of an overburdening of the pupils' mind by facts they cannot digest. In this country at the present moment an excellent opportunity exists to discover this way.

Historians and educationists of almost every European country find themselves in the United Kingdom and their own unhappy fates have prepared their minds to accept the great truth of human fellowship. A splendid and important task can and should be carried out by these professional people in the preparation of an international history book, which would demonstrate that the history of Europe is founded on a common culture and that the fates of all nations are interwoven and interdependent. It would be a fine thing if a team of English and foreign scholars were to collaborate in leading the youth to appreciate the real values of humanity, and in teaching them that the fanatical lust for power of men and nations never achieved lasting success. Perhaps even the German youth, made fanatics by an education which is nothing else than a shameless propaganda, may later learn from such a book the immense values of that German culture which their idolized hero did all he could to destroy ; and they may yet be glad that the shame of Nazism has not extinguished, as it assuredly will not, the fact that the German nation became great not through " blood and iron," but through its Luthers, Kants, Goethes, Mozarts and Beethovens.

Such a book would not be a substitute for the ordinary school-book, but rather a very valuable and necessary supplement. It should not consist of narratives, more or less detailed, of the history of different countries, but should attempt to give an *European* history, by laying stress on what the different nations and countries can contribute to the common pool of their civilization. In any case, it would be profitable to consider the history of one's own nation in the light of its importance for others. By putting oneself in such a perspective, one may perceive the unimportance of many facts, to which hitherto one had attached great importance from a national point of view. On the other hand the actual values of our own evolution assume more significance when we understand their effective influence on others. The common experiences and achievements of the different nations flow together to the mighty stream of European civilization, which receives its richness and colour from the differences between its various contributors. The understanding of a nation's history leads to the interest in and the understanding of its literature. Comprehension may often be the first step towards love : hatred between nations, so far as it exists, is almost always the offspring of ignorance. The study of history, fettered by nationalism, is comparable to a geographical outlook which refuses to acknowledge that this or that country is only a part of the earth : the very young sometimes think that their country is as big as Asia because it is represented on a map of the same size. To free the teaching of history from such a narrow nationalism will help much to a right sense of proportion and will in fact ensure a more balanced and consistent affection for one's own country. The international history-book would lead to international understanding and would help the youth to find a goal, where only it can be found, in the common cause of humanity.

Perhaps the Historical Association would like to start such a work. It would be a good and efficient propaganda against the destroyers of this European civilization we are fighting to preserve, and it would stand out as a work of peace conceived in the ordeals of war.

THE TEACHING LIFE

IV.—FRANCE REMEMBERED

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THEY are writing now. They will be writing for the next two hours while the butter-yellow rays of early summer throw a halo round each one's head. Rough heads, like wind-blown corn ; smooth heads anointed with a mysterious something which gives off a sickly odour ; boys' heads, girls' heads—all bent over the inexorable " French quarterly " which all last week kept my head bent as I set the paper, and which will be my headache next week, too, when I correct the result of to-day's pen-scratching.

I suppose it must be. I suppose that knowledge must be tested thus, once a term, brutally. One must have " something to show to the Inspector."

So they are writing. And from all the open windows come the delicious odours of peat-bog, of sun-heated pine, of cones lying scorching on a bed of perfumed needles, out there where a cuckoo is fluting so monotonously, so alluringly . . .

I can't let myself think of that. I can't let myself think of that land of dreams where my children might learn French in the sun, where my poor, pale Kathleen, crofter-child from a Pentland-Firth village ravaged by tuberculosis, might grow brown and strong, and survive the terrible disease which she does not know is devouring her. No. They must be shut in and so must I. It is that way and we cannot alter it.

They are good bairns. They need little supervision. They are as decent bairns as God ever made. What is it

(Continued on page 238)

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that they say in the Périgord ?—*bons comme le bon pain de fleur de farine*. But they are embarrassed because I am sitting here, doing nothing, watching them.

I go to the cupboard and take out a well-thumbed, much-faded copy of Larousse, and settle to a long spell of reminiscence, an orgy of memories.

With my finger, I trace on the map of France that well-known railway: Dieppe, Rouen, Pontoise, Paris. I see again the grubby little harbour of Dieppe, the Church and the Calvary on the green hill above, the fish-market and the quayside shops where people bought wine and cheese and long loaves. . . . I see the pleasant rolling hills of Normandy; orchards straggling down a slope under some ancient and crumbling farmhouse; and I see the *patron*, blue-bloused and in sabots, holding an interminable pow-wow with Monsieur le Curé who supports his bicycle with one hand and, with his shovel-hat in the other, fans his broad Norman face, red with the sun.

Up the Seine . . . up, up. The streams here are not clear, tumbling fellows like our Highland burns, rollicking over rock and flowing swiftly over bright gravel; they are deep and slow, flowing mysteriously between rows of poplars and forming wide green pools for the delectation of ducks.

Paris. Who does not have some memory of you, who that is a man or a woman at all? Who has not sipped coffee, velvet-smooth to the tongue, on your hard little chairs under the awning? Are your long dining-rooms forgotten, with their rows of tidy tables, their white paper covers a-top the cloth, clean to each new-comer? Or your *pâtisseries* where we had that feather-light pastry, eaten, enjoyed, unregretted? Or your friendly bookshops where we wandered, solitary, absorbed in the contemplation of the *livres d'occasion* and picked up an autographed Mistral? Who does not remember the Métro, the endless passages of the Châtelet Station, the cigarette advertisement portraying a Gaul with pendent blonde whiskers, and the pictures of Chocolat Menier, and Pâtes la Lune, and dear old Dubo, Dubon, Dubonnet? But maybe I'm crazy. Maybe these are just odd little patches in my own mental make-up.

Let's go South. Let's go to Limoges, where we may loiter in that odd china-shop where the backyard is full of odds and ends, bits of broken sets, cups without saucers, survivors of dinner-services, tiny forlorn coffee-cups which you buy out of pity for their loneliness or out of sentimental attachment to some pattern of rose-leaves or forget-me-nots.

Here's Périgueux, where I sat in the evenings beside a Roman tower, a book in my hand, and dreamt of legions, of centurions, of things which the Latin grammar mentioned so baldly long ago. Périgueux, where I strolled in the shade of the chestnut trees and came down at the Angelus through the old, old streets where the gossips knitted under doorways that had seen the pageant of the Renaissance. Périgueux, where in the early morning the cupolas of St. Front are mirrored exactly in the water of the Isle, and the peasant-carts pass slowly under loads of green grass.

And Brive. Brive-la-Gaillarde, where I used to stare through shop-windows at earthenware "luggie-cups" and decided—fool!—that they were too difficult to pack. I would that I had a luggie-cup now, in which I might drink café-au-lait, the way they did in Brive.

Bordeaux. Busy, sunlit, noisy, lovable! Here is the straight Roman street, the rue Ste. Catherine, where I was "done in the eye" with four yards of blue corduroy which moulted after a week! Here are the bazaars where I bought myself a funny little teapot with a metal strainer inside. Here is the little street of white houses where I lived, where every night I heard the dry rattle of palm-leaves outside my window in that tiny garden full of spring-time lilac and pear-blossom and myriads of May-born cabbage roses. Ay, and mosquitoes. Take the bad with the good; you can't get away from it.

The Pyrenees. Here is St. Jean Pied de Port, dapper township dreaming in its old ramparts, where I spent one snowy Christmas. Here is the Eastern side, too, where once I walked for a week, from Quérigut down to the Mediterranean. Let's look for Canaveilles—no, of course it isn't in—that's where I was a jackass and climbed to a hill-village without inquiring whether there was an inn. There wasn't. Oh, hills of snow and forest; pastures and terraced vineyards, shepherds' huts of primitive drystone, shall I see you again? Only perhaps as I see you now, within myself, as I see the sun-baked walls of Villefranche-du-Conflent, and the white ridge of the Canigou against an ineffably blue sky.

And here is the best part of all. Here is Alsace, a smiling land of forest and plain, between the Vosges and the Rhine. How fast Father Rhine was flowing that day, when we went down to Marckolsheim and saw the broken pontoon bridge, and on the other side, the lofty ruins of a German castle. A sentry, rifle in hand, fixed bayonet, was sitting on top of one of the towers of the Maginot line. We watched a butterfly—do you remember, my French friends?—a butterfly which left the French bank and fluttered, fluttered, fluttered until he reached the other side of the river. And we laughed and said he was a spy? And we went on, to Illhäusern, where we sat on the terrace of an inn, and ate tiny fish taken from the river and fried golden-brown.

Look! Here is Riquewihr, where one is in the Middle Ages; walled township, steeply pointed gables, courtyards, winepresses, swallows' nests under the overhang of the first story, towered gateway and ancient wooden gate. Here is the road where I used to sit on a milestone, under a cherry-tree beside a brook, to read and to listen to the sounds of the broad plain, until the bells called me home, the bells of Riquewihr, of Hunawihr, of Zellenberg, of Ribeauvillé. Somewhere in a most sacred place in my mind, I see a long, straggling township with crumbling towers surmounted by storks' nests, where the lordly birds would sit of an evening, like philosophers; I see the vineyards under the dark edge of the forest; and three castles, ruins old-rose in colour, placed one above the other on the hill. I see faces, kind faces, old and young. Sonia with her golden head; Ernest, with a broad face and honest eyes; Monsieur and Madame Dahl, whose child I have been; and the old Burckbüchlers, and Madame Knittel, and the bee-keeper and sabot-maker. Names, names, names go flitting through my mind. Must they be German, then, those good and kindly folk who loved France? Must they be German because France has lost? Supreme humiliation!

* * *

Crack! Crack! I am falling from the moon. I am here, in a class-room, with children.

"Yes, Chrissie?"

"Please, miss, may we hand in our papers?"

I look up. They have all finished and are sitting, tense and fatigued, waiting for release.

"Very well."

There is a rustling, a rubbing and straining and scuffling, the indescribable noise of a class-room in movement.

"What would you like to do, for the last quarter of an hour?"

The question is formal. I have suddenly glimpsed the abyss which separates these childish papers from living France. But hope dawns again, for Kathleen says:

"Please, miss, tell us about when you were in France."

And—oh, offence to all good teaching!—I sit on the table and talk.

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THE RELATION OF RECENT AESTHETIC AND PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH TO ART EDUCATION

By T. ELDER DICKSON, M.A., Ph.D., Head of the Art Department, George Watson's Ladies' College, Edinburgh

"OUR whole philosophy of art education has developed without benefit of sound educational research. Speculation and anecdotes, not rigorous scientific thinking, have obscured many issues. . . . We know that the academic approach is faulty; and we are beginning an approach more in harmony with known facts and observed needs and interests. Although considerable data are available, there is need to know much more, since the most effective art teaching will be based on sound educational research." These words (from an article entitled "Educational Research and Effective Art Teaching" by an American writer[1]), although addressed primarily to American educators, seem to me to apply to us with equal force and relevance. Research in art education here is far behind that in other parts of the world, notably in America, Germany, Italy, and France. In recent years, however, the volume of experimental work has been increasing, but "the distrust or downright antipathy, with which many art educators face scientific research in their field" is probably more apparent in this than in any other country, especially America where the experimental approach to education is both widespread and highly organized.

The proverbial indifference of the British people to art is probably the chief cause of the failure of educationists to treat the subject as a worthy field of investigation. Another, and perhaps more immediate cause, is the absence of research training centres in our universities and training colleges; there is, in fact, only one centre in this country where students can be trained to pursue the study of art along strictly scientific lines—the Courtauld Institute, London. Contrast this with Germany where (before the War at least) almost every important university had its department of *Kunstwissenschaft*; and the number of first-rate publications in German testify to the seriousness with which the study of art has been pursued. America, too, if volume of literature may be taken as a criterion, is developing research with the utmost vehemence. In this country alone among the great cultural centres of the world, we are still only beginning to realize the importance of careful research to art education.

It is essential, however, to keep in mind the aims and objects of research. British psychologists have been devoting more and more time to the problems of art and a great deal of vitally important results have been attained. But, as Thornton remarks in his *Art and the Unconscious*, the new psychology "has made its approach to art, knowing itself to be in possession of a wonderful secret; in this knowledge it would explore the field of art in quest of more and more material for its own enlightenment and for its own purposes, extraneous to those of art. In some respects it may have gained those ends, but in others there is the danger that the very wealth and resources of its own knowledge and the security of its own standpoint should make it blind to some essential qualities of the experience it proposes to scrutinize. We need the new psychological method in its application to the artist's work not primarily to explain the aberrations of his temperament, but because it is worth while more deeply to understand the nature of art itself and to see its value in true perspective with other values in life". The danger of a purely scientific approach is real and must not be under-estimated, but few serious researches, whether directly or indirectly related to art, fail to elicit something of value to the art teacher.

From the point of view of art education, perhaps the most striking piece of formal psychological research of recent years is the investigation carried out by Dr. R. H. Thouless at Glasgow University into the nature of visual perception.[2] The research is now fairly well known among art teachers and hardly requires restating in detail. The gist of it is that there is considerable divergence between what the 'normal' eye actually sees and the shapes and sizes of things in plane projection as determined by the laws of perspective. This divergence varies greatly as between one individual and another. If we make a subject look at a circular object inclined to the line of vision and ask him to select the one of a number of ellipses which represents the apparent shape of the inclined circle, we find that he selects not the ellipse which represents the perspective shape of the circle but one which is much nearer the circle. This is true of all subjects, those familiar with the laws of perspective as well as those ignorant of them. The law of vision of shapes seems to be not that we see shapes as projected on the retina, but that we see shapes intermediate between these perspective shapes and the real shapes of the object at which we are looking. The same law holds for size. If two objects of equal real size are at different distances, let us say, one twice the distance of the other, the far one does not look half the size of the other, although a camera would photograph it as such. Its apparent size is in between perspective size and real size. So also for the convergence of parallel lines receding from the observer. On the retina they converge considerably in accordance with the laws of perspective. In appearance very much less so; they appear to be nearly parallel and only slightly convergent. In a word, no two people really see the same object in the same way. There is, therefore, no criterion of 'normal' visual appearance; which means that 'accurate' representational drawings must be referred to mathematical standards—the laws of perspective which, of course, are not the laws of vision. Such a criterion, if applied to the totality of world art, would involve the rejection of a large proportion of the greatest works of all time as defective. This, of course, would be absurd; yet the fact remains that art teaching to-day is to a large extent founded on the assumption that there is such a thing as 'normal' vision and that there is a special virtue in accurate representation.[3]

The fallacy of this view is further emphasized by the experimental work of Prof. Löwenfeld with congenitally blind and weak-sighted subjects.[4] Psychologists have long recognized that there are two distinct modes of creative activity, the one relating primarily to visual and the other to kinesthetic and tactual experience. Basing his observations on the artistic efforts of congenitally blind and weak-sighted subjects, both adult and juvenile, Löwenfeld has demonstrated quite convincingly that imaginative activity and the capacity to give it plastic expression by no means depend entirely on the capacity to see, and that this very capacity might even inhibit the development of the creative imagination. The minds of the blind and weak-sighted are not only capable of forming non-visual images, but also of externalizing them in plastic creations of remarkable power and significance.

That all children in the early stages of their artistic development evolve schematic formulae for representing their imaginative experiences is well known. A schema is

[1] The Journal of Experimental Education. Vol. IX. September, 1940.

[2] "Phenomenal Regression to the Real Object." British Journal of Psychology. Vols. XXI, XXII.

[3] *Vide* the present writer's article, "The Criterion of Accuracy in Representational Art." British Journal of Educational Psychology. Vol. III.

[4] The Nature of Creative Activity. (Kegan Paul, 1939.)

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an unconscious abstraction from the thing which the child intends to represent—a circle for the head, a line for the mouth, dots for the eyes; and so on—and varies not only with the age and mental development of the child, but also (and this is important) according to his or her emotional and bodily experience. Specially significant parts of their drawings are variously distorted and emphasized, so that a drawing, which to the realistically minded adult may not make sense, is subjectively right and logical to the child. The emphasis given to such significant parts may be due to some personal experience of the young artist, or to particularly vivid awareness of tactual or kinesthetic sensations. Thus for him, there is no such thing as wrong proportions; provided he is able to satisfy his own instincts and feelings there can be no question of rightness or wrongness in our judgment of his drawing. As soon as we realize that artistic perception is not simply a matter of visual experience, a totally new meaning of the development of art is possible.

Two examples from Löwenfeld's cases will suffice to illustrate these claims. (1) D. H., aged 11 years and 8 months, suffers from congenital microphthalmus with grey cataract of both eyes. He draws a man and a dog, and describes his drawing as follows: "Some one is barked at by a dog, who is on a chain. He is very frightened and wants to run away, but he is so frightened that he can't start." Then, after a pause: "You know, that happened to me once." Normally, D. H. draws a man with a simple schema consisting chiefly of straight lines; but in the drawing of the man and dog, the hand of the man becomes a black star-like figure of abnormal size, this indicating strong autoplastic manifestation of fear. The legs, too, of which he is apparently intensely conscious, have been changed and given a special movement. Over-emphasis is given to the dog by filling it in solid black. (2) A. H., aged 9 years and 5 months, and suffers from hereditary cataract, draws a man, who in spite of the greatest exertion is unable to lift a heavy weight. Feeling that the great effort is pulling out his arms, he gives his figure abnormally long arms. Then he makes another drawing in which the man has succeeded in lifting the load. Here, the arms are small, thick and shaded, showing how the bodily experience which had absorbed the boy's attention, manifested itself in his creative work.

The phenomena of subjective reference and expressive over-emphasis are not limited to weak-sighted children, but operate as important formative factors in the artistic efforts of children whose vision is quite normal. Indeed, normally sighted children, at certain stages of their development, may adopt a wholly non-visual method of representation, so that "the very fact of not paying attention to visual impressions becomes the basis of the specific creativeness of a certain type". Distortions and omissions which are so characteristic of the art of children, arise out of the impulse to regard the world through the spectacles of value judgments and to assign sizes subjectively, according to the degree of importance attached by the child to his own individual experiences. As Britsch maintains,[5] the child does not 'see' in order to draw, but draws in order to see.

"As soon as we recognize that values are important in the art of children (to quote Löwenfeld), subjective experience automatically becomes the central point for our consideration of the art of children. We have shown that disproportions nearly always result from some definite intention, though this intention is not necessarily conscious. We therefore have no longer the right to speak of 'false proportions' since such a judgment is determined by our visual attitude, the attitude of 'objective experience of the environment'. On the contrary, it is only when we understand the reasons for the apparent disproportions that we are able to penetrate into the true roots of creativeness. *Naturalistic tendencies and conceptions, therefore, are totally unsuitable means for understanding the children's drawings.* The child is intimately bound up with the experience of the self and experiences its world subjectively. Although such executive tendencies have frequently been recognized, they have not been given their proper place in the treatment of children's drawings."

But the advocates of representational drawing not only make the mistake of assuming that there is a standard of 'correct' vision to which all 'good' drawing must conform; they confuse craft—and especially technique, the mechanical aspect of craft—with art, and argue that representational drawing supplies the technical skill necessary for artistic expression.[6] It seems obvious that any kind of drawing which is inspired by a real creative purpose will achieve this end without the mechanical drudgery of representation.

The source of this confusion is the prevalent notion that art is some discernible quality existing in things called works of art. There is no such quality, as Prof. Collingwood rightly points out.[7] Art is simply a fundamental activity of the human spirit. A 'work of art' is the product of this activity, just as a scientific invention is the product of the scientific activity. And the quality of the product is determined by the quality of the informing spirit. Artistic quality no more inheres in the work of art than moral quality inheres in an act of selfless heroism. "We often hear (states John Copley, one of the foremost lithographers of our time) that this or that man would be a great artist if he knew what to do with his skill; that he has every resource of his medium at his command but no purpose to which to put it; or conversely, that a man is a great artist though he lacks the technique to execute his conceptions." If this were true "We should be able to separate creative design from technical skill and find men perfect in one but wholly lacking in the other. It would be so simple . . . but it would not be true. . . . There is the skill that grows with the need of it, as a work of art develops; and there is 'skill' that exists by and for itself. The latter kind is easy to see and wears badly, the former is harder to find and endures. . . . Great art begets great skill; and bad art may be the vehicle for clever tricks".[8]

A secondary source of confusion—one which is inextricably bound up with the last—is the notion that the supposed quality inhering in the work of art is its beauty. The word 'beauty' is part and parcel of the common European linguistic heritage; but, if we go back to the Greek, whence we derive our ideas of the word, we find that there is no connexion between beauty and art. Beauty is simply that quality of a thing which excites our admiration and desire for it. To call a thing beautiful in Greek is simply to call it excellent. A poem or a painting may be beautiful; so may any human construction. Homer regularly calls the sandals of Hermes beautiful, not because he regards them as artistic, but because they enable the god to fly as well as walk. Philologically, the terms 'beauty' and 'beautiful' carry no aesthetic implication. When, therefore, we speak of a beautiful painting or a beautiful poem, all we really mean is that the poem or painting possesses the quality of excellence which compels our admiration. In the same way, when we speak of a beautiful wine, or a beautiful stroke of golf, all we mean is simply that the wine and the stroke are each in their own way admirable. On the other hand, when we speak of a "beautiful painting" there is present in the phrase an implication of artistic excellence; but the artistic part is conveyed not by the word 'beautiful' but by the word 'painting'. To impute, as is usually done, an artistic quality to the word beauty when it is applied to an object is to assume a philosophical position which falsely locates the quality in the object instead of in the experiencing agent.

A further difficulty arises from the fact that the experience of beauty like the experience of art is a pleasurable one; whence derives the doctrine of aesthetic hedonism. The doctrine is open to various objections, but one will suffice

[5] Britsch, T. **Theorie der Bildenden Kunst.**

[6] **Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers.** (Board of Education. p. 272 (ii.).)

[7] **The Principles of Art** (Oxford).

[8] **Print Collectors' Quarterly.** Vol. XXI.

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to show that it is untenable. It cannot be demonstrated that the beauty of art is a special kind of pleasure; and that ultimately is what the doctrine implies. Immediately the hedonist attempts to differentiate between pleasures which belong appropriately to art and those which do not, he is faced with an impossible dilemma. For, on the one hand, if he admits that pleasures differ qualitatively, he is applying a criterion other than pleasure; on the other hand, if he admits that pleasures differ quantitatively, then gross physical pleasures may be superior to the refined intellectual pleasure of the scholar—the pig satisfied (to use Mill's instance) would be better than Socrates dissatisfied! Masterpieces, says Ozenfant,[9] are practically never pleasing, never merely beautiful. Their effect on us is too striking for the definition of 'pleasing' to have any true application. "The truth is that a masterpiece inevitably calls forth strong emotions; some feel pleasure because of the emotion, but others feel pain: we must have nobility ourselves to be able to support grandeur. Beauty, one of man's essential yearnings, is the feeling of being raised up. There are no glorious ascents without fatigue, and for that reason the greatest works of art are not pleasing."[10]

The distinction between art and craft (to follow Collingwood) involves the distinction between means and end. Roughly speaking, the word 'means' applies to the things which are employed in order to achieve the desired end—instruments, machines, power. More precisely, it applies not to the things but to the actions concerned with them. When the end is achieved, the means are forgotten; and in so far as certain actions (manipulating instruments) are part of the means, they too cease to exist when the end is reached.

Again, craft involves a distinction between idea and execution. Before the craftsman can begin to work, he must have a plan, a preconceived idea of what he is aiming at. Moreover, the foreknowledge is not vague but precise. The architect works out in detail the main structure and plan of his building; this he shows to the sculptor, the wood-worker, the stained-glass artist, and so on, each of whom in turn works out his plan in sketch or in detail, in accordance with the spirit of the building and its practical purpose as revealed by the architect's plan, in order that the whole may express a coherent meaning and purpose. It is not essential, of course, that the various plans be committed to paper; if the craftsman can carry the whole thing in his head (an unlikely possibility) no paper or sketch plan will be necessary. But, whether it is carried in the head or put on paper, some plan, for practical as well as for aesthetic reasons, is absolutely essential.

Now it frequently happens that in the course of execution the original plan undergoes considerable modification. And this occurs irrespective of whether the plan is the work of a single worker or of a group of workers in collaboration. The commonest cause of these modifications is the emergence of unpredictable problems of a purely practical kind. Every one familiar with architectural procedure knows how often a plan may have to be modified before the building is complete. In each instance the change involves foreknowledge of ends and means. But in addition to modifications occasioned by practical necessity, there are others of greater interest to us in the present connexion because they appear to have no logical or practical purpose at all; subtleties of proportion and spacing which are felt rather than thought out and appear to be inevitable. Naturally, it is not in the major constructive arts that this phenomenon reveals itself most characteristically, but in painting, poetry, music, and literature where the producer is both planner and executor at one and the same time. And it is to these arts we may now turn in order to bring out more clearly the essential difference between art and craft.

It is a commonplace of creative experience that, after a work has been planned either in the head or in cartoon and the execution has begun, the original scheme begins to take a radically different concrete shape from what was previously intended. The original plan, for some obscure reason, is found unsatisfactory, and under the influence of internal stress a new form emerges which was never envisaged. Now, no one would argue that any blame attached to the artist because his plan aborted, or that his work in consequence must be regarded as a failure. For, in so far as he planned his purpose clearly in the light of his knowledge of means and end, he is an efficient and competent craftsman. What really happens in such instances of abortive planning is that the artist failed to perceive precisely the end he sought—not through any fault of his own, but for the simple reason that the end was hidden from him from the beginning. His whole activity, in fact, is directed towards the discovery of his goal, not the materialization of a goal already envisaged in the mind's eye. Herein lies the fundamental distinction between art and craft. Art is always an adventure, a voyage of discovery; the artist paints in order to find out what he means to express, to illuminate the tantalizing obscurity of his own thought and feeling.[11] He is like the parson in Tennyson's *Northern Farmer*, who declaims: "An' I never know'd what I mean'd, but I thowt a'ad summut to saay." The craftsman, on the other hand, knows precisely what he intends to make, and the means to achieve it, or else he is no craftsman.

If what we have been saying is true, art cannot be any kind of craft. For the artist frequently produces works of art which are in no way thought out in advance, but spring, as it were, fully formed from the depths of his being. It is true, of course, that in all conspicuous work, some plan may be conceived in advance of execution, but such preliminary mental work is merely an aid towards the fuller realization of an end which first reveals itself as a restless urge to create. Constellations of images may flit across the rim of consciousness now forming themselves into patterns of meaningful fragments, now vanishing into the mists of oblivion. Then the artist begins to work, to sketch out his scheme, and it is only then that he is vouchsafed a first glimpse of his goal. As he works, the picture unfolds itself before his vision; he may have to labour long before he reaches the point when he can feel with all his heart: "That now is what I have been seeking and striving to do"; or he may achieve it with that exquisite ease and certainty which only the inspired artist knows. In such rare moments (to borrow a thought from Percy Lubbock) it is as though for once, at the hour of midnight silence and solitude, the artist opened the innermost chamber of his mind and stood face to face with his genius. All preliminary work, whether it is done in the artist's head or in the form of cartoons, is a search, a quest for light upon the nature of his thought and purpose. Where that thought and purpose carry a great burden of intellect and emotion, like the Last Judgment frescoes of Michelangelo, the process of expression is necessarily long and exhausting. It could not be otherwise, for the span of human memory is limited, and the range and depth of perception unsteady. Hence the artist's dependence on the cartoon in all projects of major dimension.

This, of course, is not to say that a work of art may not also be a work of craft. To be an artist at all, the artist must create something outside of himself; and to create something external to himself demands a certain technical skill. And, just as the craftsman acquires the skill in making the things he plans, so the artist acquires his in exercising the creative gifts he possesses. Both need technique. But, whereas in the one instance the technique is deliberately

[9] **Foundations of Modern Art.**

[10] T. E. Lawrence speaks of one of Eric Kennington's drawings of night over Tafas as "almost painful in spite of its beauty". **Letters**, p. 373.

[11] *Vide* Prof. Alexander's article, "The Creative Process in the Artist's Mind" reprinted from the **British Journal of Psychology** in **Beauty and Other Forms of Value.**

(*Continued on page 246*)

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directed towards a preconceived purpose, in the other it is directed by feeling and sensibility towards an unknown or only vaguely conceived purpose, which is the creation of an external equivalent to an inner state of being.

This confusion of art and craft and concomitant ambiguities as to the meaning and value of technique have led to an enormous amount of misunderstanding and false pedagogics. The technical exercises of representational drawing, colour grading, and pencil shading, and the making of semi-mechanical designs, which have so long constituted the basis of art instruction, are at best the mere mechanics of craft. They develop neat-handedness at the cost of freedom and spontaneity of creative effort. Neat-handedness is no more an artistic virtue than academic English a literary virtue. Gauguin was a clumsy craftsman and Sir Noel Paton an expert: no one would suggest that by grafting Paton's skill to Gauguin's creative insight a greater Gauguin would thereby have emerged!

What the advocate of technical exercises like representational drawing forgets is that skill is required in any kind of purposeful drawing and painting. The Chinese painters who distorted the natural forms of mountains and human bodies surely wielded their brushes with as much accuracy as those painters whose object is naturalistic representation. They made their brush go where it was artistically right for it to go to produce the most satisfactory effect, not where it would follow the mathematically correct contour of a plane projection. The precise control of the instrument is as necessary in the one case as the other. An unintended slip would be as fatal to the aesthetic value of the Chinese artists' unnatural mountain as it would be to the representational value of the strictly representational artist's photographic mountain. Both need accuracy of drawing to attain different ends.

The realistic basis of art education is, almost certainly, responsible for the tendency of the ordinary man to judge pictures by realistic standards. By stressing the claims of 'accuracy' and 'correct proportion' formal art education falsely conditions the vision of the young artist and thwarts his natural instinct. This is worse than unfortunate, for many people of real sensibility have thus been forced into adopting an attitude to art which precludes the achievement of aesthetic satisfaction. One of the hardest things the teacher has to do is to prevent this distortion of the 'innocent eye', that supreme gift of childhood which so few have been able to preserve. "Look at a picture as you would at a mesmerizer, with your head empty and all your life in your eyes"; so said R. A. M. Stevenson. That is a dictum which cannot too often be repeated and which modern research every day places on a surer footing

RESEARCH AND SCHOOL WORK

II.—THE TEACHING OF ARITHMETIC

By Dr. C. M. FLEMING, University of London Institute of Education

MARKED changes have taken place in the teaching of this subject in the last forty years. Text-books are more interesting. Methods are less mysterious. Diagnostic testing is more possible, and remedial attention to pupils' difficulties is more general. Much of the credit for these improvements has to be given to the research work of experimental psychologists. Intellectual curiosity spurred them on in the nineteenth century. Compassion for problem-pupils has motivated their labours in the child-guidance clinics of the twentieth.

As in the case of reading, the survey tests of the beginning of this century had their origin in laboratory studies on rate and accuracy of perception and their sequel in a realization of the range of individual differences. This in turn led to a critical examination of class-room organization and procedure, a more careful analysis of the factors accompanying failure, and the development of diagnostic tests of a more comprehensive type.

Teaching-material in arithmetic (as in reading) was, in the nineteenth century, planned on the assumption that all teaching would be on class lines. Text-books were short, uninteresting in appearance, and addressed to the teacher rather than to the pupil. Their contents were arranged with a view to logical sequence, and few efforts were made to exemplify the social uses of arithmetic or to adapt instruction to the age of the pupils.

Reform came through a realization of the importance of active co-operative learning. Inquiries were begun into the arithmetical needs of ordinary adults and the arithmetical ability of pupils at various stages. Vocabulary studies were undertaken, and analysis was made of text-books from the point of view of their contents. It was realized that authors should supply evidence of the frequency with which they had employed each combination (5×6 or $3 + 5$, &c.) so that over-emphasis should not be given to one combination at the expense of another. Inquiries were also initiated into the actual mistakes which pupils make in each process, and it was discovered that progress is more rapid when practice is given to each type of difficulty in isolation.

Inequalities in progress were next emphasized; and a realization of the suffering caused by absence led to a demand for books written in words which pupils could understand. This attempt at self-instruction was quite naturally followed by an effort to secure for text-books on arithmetic the same degree of pleasantness and legibility which was asked for in contemporary reading books.

Case-studies of pupils who have special difficulties in arithmetic reveal that weakness is often due to unfortunate emotional associations in the early stages, to ill-health, unhappiness, unsuitable teaching methods, or abnormal physiological endowment.

Remedial tuition began to take account of all these factors. Observations were made on attitudes, temperament, social background, and intelligence; and teachers tried to see each problem pupil in his complete environmental setting.

It was also realized that remedial work had to be adapted to the differing difficulties of individual children. Diagnostic tests were developed to contain specimens of every step in the learning of each process; and some text-books are now so constructed that it is possible to tell from the position of an error in a diagnostic test the page to which the pupil should turn for practice to eliminate his particular type of weakness.

While it is difficult to dogmatize with certainty on the findings of research on so complex a subject as the teaching of elementary mathematics, it seems safe to say that the following conclusions may be accepted.

1. Systematic drill increases achievement, and is most effective when it includes all number combinations, and when the amount of practice on each combination is roughly proportionate to its difficulty.

2. For the acquisition of skill, practice on isolated difficulties and processes is more helpful than practice on mixed material. Much experience with isolated difficulties in small sums is therefore better than the attempted solution of a smaller number of unwieldy calculations of greater complexity.

3. For the maintenance of skill a mixture of material is most useful.

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4. A combination of written and oral exercises produces better results at each stage than does either oral or written drill alone.

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6. Text-books should be criticized from the point of view of their contents both verbal and computational. Evidence should be provided by authors that the range of vocabulary is not too wide, that every combination receives adequate practice, and that opportunities are given for exercise in each type of difficulty.

7. Diagnostic tests and remedial work are highly effective. Provision for these should be included in text-books; and the burden of the teacher is lightened if text-books are suited for silent study and for pupil self-correction of routine work.

8. Individualized methods and adaptation of practice to the needs of the pupils produce better results than mass methods of instruction.

9. Training in problem-solving should follow the same lines as drill in computation. Difficulties should be isolated and practice should first be given in isolation. Revision should consist of a mixture of types.

10. Vocabulary studies and training in the understanding of terms are as important in teaching mathematics as they are in the comparable subject of reading.

11. The use of flash-cards and games are helpful in developing speed both in computation and in the use of the language of mathematics.

12. The informational and social uses of mathematics require emphasis in a well-balanced course; and more interest is won if definite provision is made for pupil-activity and co-operation both in the execution of simple projects and in the devising of problems and examples. Formal instruction and definite systematic practice are, however, essential to mastery.

13. Information as to progress and success provides valuable incentives, and a pupil's competition with his own record in timed tests increases interest in the development of accuracy and speed.

14. Learning that is attempted without emotional strain and under conditions that promote happy activity wins greater success than a comparable effort made with the expectation of failure or to the accompaniment of jealousy and rivalry.

15. Mathematical ability is complex—involving relational thinking as well as skill in the manipulation of figures and verbal aptitude or imagery of a specialized type. Much waste of time and of effort has resulted from attempting to teach processes too soon.

Research is still required on such topics as:

1. The optimum age-placement of each process (the mental age at which a pupil is mature enough to learn with ease and economy of effort).

2. The best order of presentation of the processes.

3. The best age-placement of each type of problem-solving.

4. The optimum order of presentation of various types of problem-solving.

5. The methods and the attitudes of successful and unsuccessful workers.

6. The standardizing of test material for surveying progress beyond the primary school.

7. The construction of diagnostic tests for the higher levels and their incorporation in self-instructive, self-corrective text-books. (Age-norms for diagnostic tests are of little practical use, but diagnostic tests keyed to remedial practice are much needed.)

8. Further factorial analysis of performance in tests especially at the higher levels.

THE NATIONAL CERTIFICATE IN WAR-TIME AND AFTER

By A. H. STUART, Ph.D., B.Sc., Headmaster, Day Technical School, Hackney Technical Institute

THE rapid rise in popularity of the National Certificate scheme among those associated with part-time technical education has been so marked that its survival during war-time and its development in the post-war period deserve some attention.

The scheme in some ways anticipated the recommendations in the Report of the Board of Education Departmental Committee on examinations for part-time students, known as the Atholl Report, which was published in 1928, and, being a late comer into the field of examinations, it avoided some of the less desirable features of the older schemes. Thus the National Certificate is not a mere statement that the holder has reached a certain standard at a specific examination, but records the much more important fact that he has attended a recognized course of instruction in a group of subjects for at least three years, and carried out the necessary laboratory work related to certain of these subjects. The passing of the final examination is only one of the requirements.

The scheme has proved to be a great advance on the older form of part-time technical education, since it has placed a very definite goal in front of the student, and encouraged him to study a group of correlated subjects instead of selecting one or two which appealed to his fancy at the time of entry, which appeared to be the guiding principle in the old days. The industrial world too has realized the merits of the scheme, and many large firms now encourage their junior workers to follow this type of technical education by offering bonuses to the wages of those who are successful. In some cases the holding of a National Certificate (Ordinary or Higher) is made a condition of promotion to the more lucrative positions 'on the staff'.

The scheme is worked by three contracting parties, the Board of Education, the Technical College concerned and a professional body, the latter varying according to the group of subjects studied. Thus for the National Certificate in Mechanical Engineering the Institution of Mechanical Engineers is the third party. An Examinations Board known as the Joint Committee consists of six members, three appointed by the Board and three by the Institution. This committee considers the applications of the Technical Colleges to work the scheme, and has to satisfy itself on the suitability of the equipment and staff for the purpose.

The course is open to students of 16 or over, and covers three years in which not less than 150 hours' instruction must be given in each year. Usually this number of hours is exceeded, since the student attends on three evenings a week, classes of 2 or 2½ hours duration, throughout the winter and spring. Students may enter the course on leaving a secondary school or junior technical school, but, for those who leave an elementary school at 14, a two-year preliminary course is provided in Junior Evening Institutes. Records must be kept of attendance and progress during all three years, together with results of examinations at the end of the first and second years. These examinations are in the nature of tests of fitness to proceed to the subsequent year.

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by the Joint Committee. These assessors may, and often do, make changes in the paper and the standard of marking, and thereby aim at retaining a reasonably uniform standard while allowing maximum latitude to suit local conditions.

A student who meets all the necessary requirements is awarded a National Certificate. He may now take a further two-year course and obtain the Higher National Certificate. This is of particular value since it exempts the holder from further examination in the appropriate subjects for the graduateship of the Institution or other professional body, and this is becoming more and more the popular road to such qualifications.

In most of the large Technical Colleges the papers in all subjects are set and marked by the staff who have done the teaching, subject of course to the revision of the assessors. In some cases smaller Technical Colleges and Institutes are grouped together, and a common set of papers is prepared by a Board of Examiners usually composed of representative teachers from the Colleges concerned, presided over by a chairman from outside the group. Even so, both question papers and the standard of marking the scripts are subject to the assessors' revision as in the former case.

So much for the National Certificate scheme as it existed at the outbreak of war. During the first winter of the war classes were continued in the more important groups of subjects, and, although numbers were reduced, the quality of the students was very high indeed. Perhaps this was due to the fact that only heroes could face the black-out conditions and very severe weather which was experienced during this first winter. The second winter opened with the concentrated air attack on this country, and in places like London systematic evening classes became impossible. Not to be beaten, however, the scheme was operated in classes held during the daylight hours of Saturday afternoons and Sundays. Numbers have of course been further reduced, but the quality of the work done is as high as ever.

What does the future hold ? That the scheme has been a great step forward no one doubts, and in the post-war development one may hope to see an extension of the part-time classes held during working hours. Where these classes have been in operation they have been an unqualified success, and, while the difficulties of the small firm in adopting this principle are quite well appreciated, these difficulties should not be accepted as insuperable.

There are some who see in the great popularity of the National Certificate scheme a danger which should not be ignored. The work of these grouped courses is very interesting to staff and students alike, and in many part-time Technical Colleges the National Certificate Courses are apt to obscure all other work. There is a marked falling off in numbers as one proceeds from the first to the third year of the course, and a still more marked decline in the fourth and fifth years. What happens to those who fall by the wayside ? One should face the fact that many who enter the first year of the National Certificate course are employed as mechanics, and the course provides them with the theoretical equipment for a job which they may never obtain. They may find the work difficult and the pace hot and, getting discouraged, cease trying. How else can we account for the fall in numbers ?

Would it not be good policy to have a sound practical course running alongside the theoretical National Certificate course, keeping both of equal merit, with facilities for students to pass from one to the other at all stages, according to the natural aptitude of the individual ? It takes a world-wide war to establish the value of a skilled mechanic, and we should surely see that our schemes of technical education do not provide us with a number of poor theoretical men who might have been skilled on the practical side.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SIR,—While I am not at all anxious to extend still further the inroads that I have been making on your space I feel driven to ask your assistance in meeting a request that was put to me at a recent conference of public schoolmasters and others. It was to the effect that I should find a way of giving wider currency to some remarks I offered at the end of a discussion on policy.

The main purpose of these remarks was to dispel certain illusions (as I regarded them), and to emphasize what seemed to me the objectives that the public schools should now set before themselves. I can offer here no more than the gist of what I said, and for the sake of clearness I will set it out in numbered paragraphs.

1. Thinking should proceed not in terms of survival devices calculated to ' save ' particular institutions but in terms of ways and means of preserving, and possibly extending, the achieved educational values of which the public schools can claim to be the interpreters and guardians. It seems unlikely in the extreme, in view of war-time experiences, that any régime can establish itself in England which is interested solely, or even primarily, in the maintenance of particular institutions in their traditional form.

2. But there is a very good chance, if the representatives of tradition behave with ordinary wisdom, of a régime that will be alive to the importance of preserving continuity of spirit and direction in national life and education as a whole, whatever may be its attitude to particular institutions. The most urgent immediate task, therefore, is to convince public opinion that there is, in the public-school tradition, a valuable deposit of true educational experience which ought to be preserved. I suggested, however, that the achieving of this would involve a much more clear and convincing statement of the purely educational case than has yet been put forward—a statement quite free from the now damaging associations with privilege.

3. Clear definition of the issue in terms that would evoke for the cause a large measure of support outside the immediate range of the public schools has been badly impeded by bad mistakes of policy. Such mistakes serve only to deepen mistrust and to alienate support and sympathy. Here are some examples :

(*a*) We are told in some quarters that only those who have direct experience of the public schools have any right to an opinion. There might be some justification for this warning-off of trespassers if the issue concerned only the internal life and work of the schools. To suggest that it does is to be blind to the whole situation, and to insist on such an attitude will be to leave the ultimate fate of the schools in the hands of those who have been forced out of all sympathy for them.

(*b*) The reiteration of the claim to ' independence ' is likely to cause increasing resentment and suspicion. Independence of what ? is being more and more insistently asked. Independence of the unteachables among governors and old boys and other die-hard guardians of the chains ? Or independence of any relation with the system of schools in which 90 per cent of the people of England are educated ? If the latter, what will happen in the future to the claim of the schools to be in a peculiar sense ' national ' ? It would seem that, even though the word continues to be independence, the actual *fact* may be increasing isolation. And if isolation is insisted upon it may very well be conceded. Is that prospect really welcome ?

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(*c*) In form and content a public document so recent as the Spens Report serves to reflect a desire for such isolation. Though it is entitled " Secondary Education " and is the work of a statutory public committee it nowhere refers to the public schools. Nay, as though to make quite clear that these schools are outside of " Secondary Education " as understood in England, the words " with special reference to Grammar Schools and Technical High Schools " are added to the title of the Report. If the directors of public-school policy have changed their minds since the Report was published, they must realize what an obstacle they have erected for themselves. If they have not changed their minds, then we have that much light on the meaning of independence.

4. There can be no doubt that those schools which are now taking active steps to establish relations with the ' not independent ' educational system of England are following a wise and hopeful course. The suggestion that ' independence ' as hitherto understood is a sovereign good, to retain which any sacrifice is justifiable, carries with it some implication that to lose it is a very great evil. Does the experience of the many schools that have never had it bear this out ? And is the implied mistrust of the good sense and educational insight of those fellow-countrymen who administer the State school system really justified ? Thus a new light may be shed on the meaning of ' independence ' by some whole-hearted consorting with those who have it not.

5. Lastly, let it not be thought that the great and genuine educational values that are embodied in the public schools will be irretrievably lost if the schools take up an attitude which results in their fading out in an isolation much more bleak than splendid. This country, now not without alternative resources, is not so weak in creative powers that it could not recreate and re-embody all that it needed of public-school values. We should have to lament, not a total loss, only a great deal of unnecessary waste and conflict. But that is bad enough and worth some effort to avoid.

F. CLARKE.

University of London Institute of Education,
At University College, Nottingham.

MINIATURE WHITEHALLS

SIR,—As one who has been acquainted with the incidents of the ' Regional ' system of Government control in wartime, I cannot refrain from putting your readers on their guard against a too hasty agreement with the general conclusions of Mr. Kenneth Lindsay. I could have understood better your ' comment ' in the May issue of *The Journal of Education* if it had been written in a spirit of delicate irony. At first I thought it was, until I came upon the passage which urges us to " try to relate this new device to the permanent needs of government ", and to throw away the fears, vested interests, and indolences which may " hinder us from thinking the new thoughts that will be necessary ". The only " new thought " which experience of the system can have inspired in any understanding mind is an earnest prayer that the " miniature Whitehalls " may not outlive the war period.

W. A. BROCKINGTON.

Grey Friars, Leicester.

PLANNING AND EDUCATION

SIR,—In his article in the April issue of *The Journal of Education* Dr. H. G. Stead passed over with very slight mention what seems to me to be one of the most important problems which post-war education will have to face. He says of members of a planned democratic society, " they will have to be creative and constructive individuals within the proper sphere of such activity ". This is very true, but I think he should have enlarged on the point.

In a *planned* democratic society there will presumably be no persons permanently unemployed ; this means, therefore that the pre-war figure of about 2,000,000 unemployed has by some means to be absorbed into the purposeful work of the nation. Now a good many of these 2,000,000 can be absorbed by raising the school-leaving age, and by the provision of part-time education for all up to, say, the age of 21 and of greater opportunity for adult education. Nevertheless, if the resources of machinery are developed and used to the full, it would seem that the only way of eliminating unemployment will be by distributing the work of production more evenly over the whole community, with a consequent diminution of working hours for the majority of workers and a corresponding increase in leisure time. The great problem for schools will be so to educate the future workers that they will know how to use this leisure constructively and creatively.

A great deal has, of course, already been done towards the training of children for the use of leisure ; but still more needs to be done, and there must be a greater realization among teachers of the importance of the problem. In particular, I should myself like to see more stress on gardening as a form of creative individual work—not, of course, to the detriment of the arts or of intellectual activity ; but these latter do seem to have had more than their fair share of attention in recent years.

F. W. GARFORTH.

St. George's School,
Harpenden, Herts.

HOW THE COLONIES JOINED THE EMPIRE

SIR,—I should not in the ordinary way venture to remark upon anything which a reviewer of my booklet *How the Colonies Joined the Empire* chose to say.

Your reviewer's statement, however, that " we find no reference anywhere to the slave trade " is such stark evidence that he has not taken the trouble to read the booklet that I feel entitled to say something.

There was no conscious bias on my part against the Boers in the necessarily extremely brief summary of the events which led to colonial expansion in Southern Africa. I was, as I was careful to explain, constrained to keep my facts at their minimum and I do not think that an unbiased reader would quarrel with the bare outline which I was able to give.

I did not deal with the Ottawa Agreements of 1932 because that was not part of the task I undertook. My object was to show how the Colonies became part of the Empire and not to comment on trading arrangements made within the last ten years.

As to your reviewer's criticism of the foreword by Lord Croft, we have here merely an attack by the cynic on the zealot. The cynic, however, over-reaches himself when he blames Lord Croft for referring to Indians in India as " the native races ". There must be many dictionaries in Oxford, may I suggest that he borrow one ?

W. A. WELLS (News Editor).

Empire Industries Association,
9 Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1.

[REVIEWER'S NOTE.—If Mr. Wells really thinks that a reference to a dictionary is sufficient to justify his use of the expression " the native races " as a description of the people of India he does not thereby increase our confidence in his capacity to write wisely and responsibly about the British Empire in these days of its crisis.

I concede the point about the Ottawa Conference. As for the slave trade, the part it played in the early history of the Colonial Empire is hardly irrelevant in a book with such a title. It would be well, therefore, if Mr. Wells would give the reference to his discussion of it.

On the whole question does he not feel that there is a possible standpoint somewhere between that of what he

(*Continued on page 254*)

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calls the cynic and that of the uncritical enthusiast? And would he not agree, upon reflection, that it is precisely that standpoint that we ought to adopt in days when, in order to keep the gold in view, we shall have to be quite honest in recognizing the dross?

In any case the belief that bad history is good advocacy might well be left to the Nazis, who have still to learn what a kick there is in that ancient blunderbuss.]

ENGLAND—AMERICA

SIR,—Several months ago, as my parents and I sailed up the Hudson River, we saw the Statue of Liberty, holding aloft a gigantic torch, a silent emblem of the safety and peace we had come to get.

Mummy, daddy, and I have noticed many things that, as far as we can find, are peculiar to this country. There are many people who have not been to America, and they think it is the same as England, for countries which speak the same tongue should be alike in their sports and ways of living. On coming to this country I saw my mistake, and thought that you folks, in England, might be interested in the principal differences between England and the United States.

Counting money is much easier in America than in England. Also, in this country, I find people are more apt to use decimals than fractions.

One of the most important differences is in driving a car. Here we drive on the right side of the road and the steering-wheel is on the left side of the car. I first noticed this when my uncle picked us up in his car when we got off the boat.

"Look out!" I cried, "you're on the wrong side of the road."

He only laughed, and since then he's been teasing me about my mistake.

Then I looked at the flats. There were houses and houses of them, none less than fifteen stories high. These were the American skyscrapers.

"Goodness," thought I, "I wonder what would happen if they came crashing down as the houses in England are doing?"

I was rather perplexed by shops with 'Drug Store' written on them. I did not ask what they were, lest my uncle and aunt should laugh at me again. We passed close to one and I saw medicines in the window.

"What about having an ice-cream soda in a 'drug store'?" inquired my uncle. I almost had a heart attack.

On arriving at the hotel daddy bought a newspaper for 2 cents. I caught hold of mummy's arm for support—the paper consisted of about one hundred pages.

Later we had lunch in our apartment (flat). That sounds all right. The waiter wheeled in a table—it just got through the door—and after it a trolley with a large metal box on top. I found out later that the food was inside the box and a spirit-lamp kept it warm.

We had corn. "Corn," I said, in amazement, "what do the horses eat, then?" To my relief, however, it proved to be maize. We also had 'porterhouse steak'. Mummy looked rather surprised and said, "Why, that's grilled roast beef. How thick it is!" For dessert we had apple pie. That sounds all right, too; but, when we opened the metal box and took out the pie, we found there were little squares of Dutch cheese on top. Mummy looked disgusted. "Goodness," she said, "the cheese must have fallen on top." After that, without much ado, she spiked the cheese with a fork and put it on a clean plate. Later we found out that it was customary to eat Dutch cheese with apple pie.

Later my uncle took me for a walk in Central Park. "Hot dogs! Hot dogs!" cried a man. "What in the world does he mean?" I gasped. "He's selling sausages. I'll get you one." Ahead, I saw a wire wall which had three sides. It was like half an octagon. "What is that wire thing, over there?" I inquired. "That's a baseball diamond." "What's baseball?"

"A sport like cricket." A few days later I contracted scarlet fever and the doctor ordered fresh or canned (tinned) fruit juices.

I go to Trinity School in New York City. It is a very large building, cool in summer and warm in winter. I find it much more modern in every way than the school I went to in London. Before I went to Trinity I wondered what the masters would be like. I wondered if they would be as nice as those I had in England. I found them kind and helpful. I find that the boys of my age are several terms behind me in Latin. One afternoon a master asked me if I intended to go to 'Group'. "Group! What do you mean by 'Group', sir?" "When you go to 'Group', you play football and other games."

Another time, in the social science (history) lesson, the master was telling us about some of the dishes the early settlers learned from the Indians. "Succotash", he said, "is one." Later I learned that succotash is a mixture of corn and beans. By now, as you may guess, I was getting quite used to new names. But some more treats were in store for me. "Please turn to Unit 3, Lesson 2, and learn how to spell the words in the list," said the master. I looked through the list. There was something wrong. A misprint, perhaps. I wasn't sure, so I looked again. Honorable—Favorable—Color—Valor'—all spelled without the 'u'. I took my book to the master. 'Look," I said, "these words are not spelled correctly." He smiled and replied, "Yes, they are. We spell them that way in America." I also found that a 'full-stop' is called a 'period' in America.

These are some of the differences I found between England and the United States. They make me doubt whether England and the United States are really the same. They made me feel that, perhaps, England and the United States are only second cousins.

Written by JOHN PETER SCOTT.
(Form 1. Trinity School. Age 11.)

From Arnold House School,
St. John's Wood, London, England.

SIR,—Everybody's life has been upset by the war; so has mine. When I left England I was not at all perturbed. It seemed as if I were just going to boarding school, except for leaving my parents.

I arrived in New York on July 31, after having left my home in Weybridge, Surrey, about three weeks earlier.

I have been asked, on several occasions, to give impressions of my American school and to compare my life in America with my life in England.

I attend Trinity School in New York City, the third oldest school in America. This school was first held in the tower of old Trinity Church and was attended by many English boys living in America. My school pals here have made me most welcome; they are so friendly.

My American school is much larger than my last English one. Trinity has about 325 boys; whereas Wallop had 60 boys. Wallop is a preparatory school, preparing boys to win scholarships to larger and more advanced schools. I am 12 years old, and I had one more year of study before trying for a scholarship.

The schools in England do not have grades as they do in America. There the headmaster chooses how many class-rooms he wants, say four; and he divides the boys into four groups. If there is a new boy, the master will determine in which class he is to be placed. In another school the new boy may have been in the second class, but in this school, with four class-rooms, he might be in class one and still be doing the same work. The American system seems to be much easier. You move up a grade each year and which-ever school you go to, you will still be in the same grade that year.

The American schools do not seem to me to be at all strict. You may play 'yo-yo' and other games before

(Continued on page 256)

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school and, during the free periods, talk to the master and your class-mates during recitation, sharpen your pencil if necessary, and you are none the worse.

The American master is friendlier *in* school and the English is friendlier *out* of school and in private.

Here, in America, I have, in Form 1, arithmetic, with simple algebra and geometry, English, including grammar and literature, spelling, French, Latin, social science, religion, science, speech, art, manual art, and music. At home I had algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and more advanced Latin and French, but no social science. From this, I conclude, that the Americans, in comparison, are more advanced in Latin than they are in mathematics, and, on the whole, are more backward than the English.

Trinity has many more activities than we had in England. Here I can enjoy ping-pong, swimming, soccer, American football, handball, basketball, baseball, studio, and band. At home we had outdoor sports and swimming in the summer. I am learning to play the clarinet, one of the instruments belonging to the school. At home I should never have had the chance.

Trinity has four of its own buses to take boys home or to the park for play. A very good idea, I think. At Wallop, as there were no school buses, everybody either walked or went home by bus, car, or bicycle.

At Trinity we have three quarters of an hour for lunch. When you get to school in the morning, you make out a lunch slip. You have a great variety to choose from: sandwiches, hot lunches, desserts, &c. At Wallop about half the boys went home for lunch, as they had an hour for this purpose. If you did stay, there was no choice. You sat down and one of the boys served you.

On my way to school I find it very safe, as there are traffic lights at each corner. At home we have a few lights, but mostly policeman. In New York there are a number of brightly coloured taxicabs. In London we do not have nearly as many and they are either dark blue or black and not at all streamlined.

When I arrived in New York I was disappointed by the skyscrapers. From their pictures I imagined all of them to be as high as the Empire State Building, and the latter to be so high that I couldn't see the top of it.

Most New Yorkers seem to be much interested in English boys. This makes me feel at home and not a stranger.

When I return home, I shall always visualize Americans as my friends, and I will always be grateful for the help they gave me in my education and in helping me to know a new country.

Though I have said much in favour of America, it does not mean that I have forgotten England, and I *do* love her as much as I did when I left.

Written by MICHAEL HARDING.
(Form 1. Trinity School. Age 12.)

From Wallop School,
Weybridge, Surrey, England.

SIR,—When I try to compare my English school with the one which I am attending in America, I find many differences which are not due to the different countries in which they are situated. My school in England is a large one principally for day scholars (although there are a small minority of boarders) and is run by a board of governors on the money left by the Founder, a government subsidy, and the money paid by the parents—about 12 guineas a term.

On the other hand, the school which I go to in America is a small private one, run for profit, certainly not as typically American as my other was typically English. This school is principally for boarders and is, I am informed, rather exclusive. I do not know the yearly fee, but I think it is between 1,000 and 2,000 dollars, that is to say about £70–£140 each term. The cost of food and other things must, of course, be subtracted from this amount, but even so it is a more expensive school than my English one.

Still, even with these rather important differences, I think I can compare the two schools and I shall try not to generalize, although some of the things I say about my English school can be applied to all English schools, and the same with my American one.

In the first place the school system here is entirely different from the English way, and that is true of all American schools. Instead of taking all the subjects you are likely to need each year, they take from three to six and do them for one year, and then start on another set; though important subjects, like English, may be taken all the time. The advantage of the English system is that it isn't nearly as easy to forget the subjects, though, by following the American method, it is possible to do the few that are taken very thoroughly.

There is also a great difference in the way things are taught. In England we were instructed in class and wrote essays or read about the same thing for homework. In America it is just the other way round, we learn the new subject for prep. and in class we are questioned on it and given tests on it. Personally, I do not like this way, because it means that we come to class ready to answer in order to get good marks and not to learn; but I may be just conservative.

The marking here astonished me: 60 per cent for a pass mark in an examination. I thought that the majority of people must fail, but when I had taken one I found that they were much easier than the English ones, there was more time allowed, and also the marking wasn't as hard.

The attitude of the girls to their work I found, in the younger groups, the same as in England, that is: that lessons were pretty boring but they have been sent here and they must do them and, anyway, the fun with the others in their free time makes up for it. Among the older girls there was a difference. In England they mostly begin to start concentrating and working to get past the school certificate and, also, I think that among quite a large minority there is a genuine pleasure and desire for learning. In America that minority does not seem nearly as large, their minds are not so mature. They, too, have an examination to work for: the College Boards, but they do not seem able to concentrate as steadily as the girls in England did. There is also the fact that many of them are far more concerned with their 'love affairs' than their school work. The teachers in both my English and American schools I find on the whole helpful and sympathetic. Perhaps they seem more human in America because there is not such a deep gulf of formality between teacher and pupil. For instance, we do not stand up when a teacher speaks to us in class, neither do we shut or open the door for her. Sometimes they are even called by their Christian names. I like this familiarity in our school, but I am told that in the free schools (they call them public schools) it becomes almost rudeness. This is also true of English 'free schools' when a certain amount of freedom is allowed. There is the same familiarity between the older and younger girls. In England there is always a stiffness between them, though the younger ones would sometimes make a cult of heroine-worship, while in America there is perfect equality and freedom between the juniors and seniors.

In the matter of sports there is a great difference. Here they are compulsory, yet every one tries to avoid them. In England (in my school that is to say) they were voluntary, and the greater part of the school did them and enjoyed them. I think this was partly due to successful propaganda. It was taken for granted that you would play; there were inter-school competitions, and if you could get on to a team your prestige rose accordingly. There were matches played against other schools and here, even though it is a boarding school, that never happens. Boys' schools sometimes do it, however. It also seems to make no difference to you if you play well or not, and thus no encouragement is given.

There are many entertainments given by this American

(*Continued on page 258*)

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school, far more than in England. Both schools tell the girls if there is anything worth seeing in town and sometimes get tickets for plays and concerts; but in America they also provide entertainment within the building. There are dances on Saturday nights, with refreshments; there are banquets for the various clubs and classes; and also picnics. My school in England also had clubs, but there was a very small fee required, and then a few meetings or lectures. Here the fee is anything up to $2 (eight shillings) and one is expected to buy a club-pin, while they plan in their meetings how to give parties or plays.

The freedom allowed here is far more than in an English boarding school (from what I have heard from my English friends who went to one), except that they have to go to bed earlier and get up earlier. Lights must be out at 9.45 and breakfast is at 7.30. Men callers are allowed, however, and the school has dancing class and produces a Gilbert and Sullivan opera and also a concert with a nearby boys' school. There is no uniform, though trousers are not encouraged in the class-room, and socks can be, and are, worn all the year round, even in the coldest winter weather. Make-up is becoming quite a problem. The mistresses do not like the girls wearing *too* much lipstick, so now they can only have it really bright at dinner-time, for concerts in the town, and when they go to the boys' school. The girls think they are being most hardly treated.

On the whole I prefer the English way, perhaps because I am used to it, but also I think because it teaches people how to study properly. In America it must be said that the atmosphere is more human and the good fellowship much greater, but I would rather live in a more formal atmosphere if the other was at the expense of my education.

Written by JENNIFER TURNER.
(Northampton School for Girls, Northampton, Massachusetts. Age 15.)

From the Perse School for Girls,
Cambridge, England.

EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

RECENT TRENDS IN NATIVE EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

By JULIUS LEWIN, Lecturer in Native Law and Administration, Dept. of Bantu Studies, University of the Witwatersrand

FRIENDS of the Bantu in South Africa feared that the war would put a stop to all progress. The first eighteen months of war have not only failed to realize those natural fears, but have also seen three major developments in the field of Native education.

The first of these was the opening in January last of the Jan H. Hofmeyr School of Social Work. For some time we have known how bad the social conditions are in our urban locations or " Native townships ", as we are beginning to call the area set aside for Native residents. The situation is due not simply to slum conditions, which have indeed been largely wiped out, but rather to certain secondary results that arise from poverty. Of these the most serious are juvenile delinquency and broken homes caused by migration and moral instability. It is to cope with these disturbing developments among their own people that the School has begun to train African social workers.

The School owes its birth to the initiative of the National Council of the Y.M.C.A. and to the interest of its National President, Mr. J. H. Hofmeyr, now Minister of Finance, after whom the institution has been named. Financial support was readily obtained from the Native Affairs Department, the Johannesburg Municipality (which is to-day itself a body handling no less than £5,000,000 a year), the Transvaal Chamber of Mines, and others. The School is fortunate to get as its Principal the Rev. Dr. Ray E. Phillips, who has been seconded by the American Board Mission for his new work. No one knows his way about the Rand better than Dr. Phillips. He has been there for twenty full years, and perhaps his biggest achievement is the extensive series of clubs which he has founded wherever the Bantu can forgather to discuss public affairs.

The Diploma of the School will require two years of full-time study. Students entering the course must hold the Junior Certificate, an initial qualification that did not prevent scores of eager men and women from applying for admission. So the forty who form the first class are exceptionally suitable for training. Two came from the Bechuanaland Protectorate and one from as far afield as Nyasaland, but the latter has now been reclaimed by his own colony.

Dr. Phillips has surrounded himself with a staff of part-time lecturers drawn mainly from the Witwatersrand University and the Johannesburg Technical College, so the standard of instruction is assured. The subjects include sociology, native law and administration, economics, physical culture, hygiene, social legislation, drama, and arts and crafts, and a good deal of practical work is to be done along the Reef and in neighbouring rural districts.

Municipalities, missions, and other institutions are sponsoring a number of the students with a view to their employment at the end of the course, and others have come of their own accord in the hope of securing posts as probation officers, sports and club organizers, or house fathers —and mothers, for married couples are enrolled together.

This is the first school of its kind in Africa, and its prospects of success will be watched with confidence.

* * *

Almost at the same time as the Hofmeyr School was started, the University of the Witwatersrand thrilled us with the announcement that from 1941 it can offer full clinical training to non-European students in its Medical and Dental Faculties. To appreciate the meaning of this, one must remember that it has long been a grievance with the Bantu and coloured folk, and the Indians, too, that they could attend only the first three years of the full medical course at any South African University, and that they had then to go overseas for the three clinical years. Some of the more prosperous Indian merchants could afford to send their sons to London or Edinburgh, but Bantu or coloured (as we call the Eurafrican people) parents who have done so can be counted on one's fingers.

The decision of the University has been made possible by the steady expansion of hospital accommodation for non-European patients, which is now such as to provide an adequate variety and number of cases for thorough clinical instruction.

Bantu students will continue to do the first-year medical subjects (physics, chemistry, botany, and zoology) at the South African Native College at Fort Hare and then come to Johannesburg for the second year. The whole course of study occupies six years, and its cost is high. The South African Native Trust, the comprehensive fund which finances all Bantu welfare work in the Union, therefore immediately offered five annual scholarships of £200 each to enable selected Bantu to enter the course. These have now been chosen. They all hold the B.Sc. degree, being mostly school principals with an obvious bent towards science, and, together with a sixth, they are already hard

(Continued on page 260)

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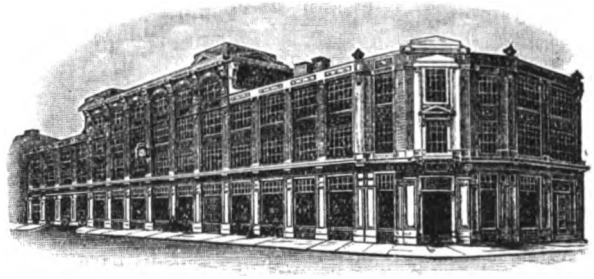

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at it in the anatomy laboratory. In four years' time the University expects to have forty, if not fifty, such students in training. It will be a great day for us when the first Bantu doctor, trained in his own country, is capped M.B., Ch.B. and starts his practice.

* * *

From these lofty altitudes of higher education it is good that we must descend to the humblest level of all to record the third major event in native education. When the Native Representative Council met in Pretoria not long ago, the Secretary for Native Affairs told the members that school fees for Bantu children in primary schools are to be abolished forthwith. The children in the Cape Province, which is always rather more generous to non-Europeans, have not paid fees for a long time, and now at last the three Northern Provinces, the Transvaal, Natal, and the Orange Free State, have come into line. The Councillors had urged this change on the Government in 1938, and now their plea has been answered.

The abolition of fees will, however, mean a loss to the Missions of close on £30,000, and it comes at a time when they can ill afford to face a lower income because the war has cut off many Foreign Missions from their home base. They are naturally worried about the matter, especially as it has not yet been made clear how the shortfall will be made good. Negotiations are now afoot and we cherish the hope that the Union's rapidly mounting war expenditure will not cause the missions to regret the Government's gesture, which the Bantu of course were not slow to acclaim.

U.S.A.

THE Annual Report for 1940 of the Division of Intercourse and Education of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace is once again an example of the vigour of its Director. Dr. Butler, in his introductory remarks, says that the year 1940 has set the low water-mark in the history of Western civilization. The world has returned for the time being to the rule of cruel and relentless brute force, the declared object of which is the establishment of a so-called New Order. The Nazis describe this New Order as Lebensraum. To the rest of the world it is Todesraum.

" Most appalling is the breakdown of the once great German people. After centuries of steady and orderly development, that people in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries reached a height where they were guiding and enriching the thought of the world. In philosophy, in literature, in music, in the fine arts, and in orderly industrial development, they were setting the standard for a world in which their influence was commanding. From that great height they have fallen almost overnight to their present low level of merely animal existence. . . .

" Unfortunately, the democracies have been very slow and unready to recognize the significance and the character of the attack being made upon those fundamental principles which are their foundation. Now, however, they are coming to recognize that this new invasion is directed at all of them, wherever they may be, whether in Europe, in Asia, or in the Americas. The object of the so-called New Order is specifically declared to be to displace that social, economic, and political liberty which has been so widely established during the past three hundred years and so highly acclaimed by the leaders of the world's thought.

" In the midst of so amazing and so terrifying a conflict, it must be the object of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace to direct attention to the real significance of this conflict, to appeal to the democracies to show power of leadership and constructive policy, and so to act in effective co-operation that they will not only protect but in the end strengthen all those principles and ideals for which they stand and which are essential to their life.

" From the point of view of an American, it can only once more be repeated that to speak of this war as a European war is childish. To describe it as something from which the American government and the American people may and should remain aloof and isolated is worse than stupidity. It is suicidal.

" The Carnegie Endowment must also direct its attention, as we have so often insisted, upon the post-war reconstruction of this world in terms of a social, an economic, and a political organization and of co-operation between nations which will show that the lessons of this fearful contest have really been learned. Democracy does not mean perpetual discussion and debate. It also means action."

The Report is largely concerned with recording the activities of the Visiting Carnegie Professors, whose activities aim at increasing the bonds of understanding and friendship between the country represented by the scholar and the country which he visits. He may stay for a few days or, in rare cases, for an academic year. Frequently the programme includes a series of public lectures, a stated course of class-room work and round-table discussions with advanced students. For example, Dr. José Castillejo, former Professor of Law at the University of Madrid, was accredited to the British Isles, and addressed many different types of audiences on a great variety of subjects. At the University of London Institute of Education he delivered a series of lectures to teachers working for their M.A. degree on the history of educational doctrine. Other places visited were Nottingham, Newcastle, Oxford, Abbotsholme, and Shipham. He also collaborated with a committee of experts who are studying the preparatory steps which might be taken to give the various national educational systems certain common principles. Other professors also accomplished an impressive amount of similar work, notably Prof. Mowat, of Bristol, who visited the United States.

Detailed reference is made to the work of the Division in Latin America and in the Orient. In Europe it has not been possible to do much. The Report ends on a note of hopefulness and courage. " We must not yield to the temptation to assume that all is lost, but must strengthen our minds and our bodies to continue the great contest between civilization and barbarism until victory for civilization be finally and definitely gained."

S. B. L.

EDUCATION UNDER HITLER

ACCORDING to a large number of quotations from German sources, some of which are referred to in *The Teachers World* and others in *The Times Educational Supplement*, professional and military circles in Germany are by no means happy about the effects of Nazi educational methods. The *Hamburger Fremdenblatt*, for example, in an article headed " Is Youth Getting Stupider "? says: " Examples seem to confirm the assertion that the growing generation is less intelligent. There have been many complaints from the Wehrmacht regarding the standard of knowledge among the young men going in for the Wehrmacht examinations. The professional schools complain that they can hardly fulfil their task, as they must waste time in teaching elementary subjects." Military papers express doubts about the standard reached by cadets: " Logic and disciplined thinking are usually replaced by an incredible tendency to use meaningless claptrap." " There will be a danger to national defence when mental education is hampered by an exaggerated physical training, and if regimental commanders are making this complaint in regard to new recruits there must be something wrong with the present system of education," said a lecturer at the German War Ministry. There are complaints from parents. " The children's spare time is entirely taken up with duties, rallies, marches, and drills. Parents can have them at home only on the second and fourth Sundays in the month." Protest is futile. " A father who keeps his children away from the Hitler Youth abuses his parental power." Enrolment is essential because " the school alone is not able to undo the

(*Continued on page 262*)

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strong natural influence of the parents and to secure the aims of National Socialist education ".

The Nazis, in fact, are unrepentant. " The training of future teachers in seminaries will be entirely abandoned, and in place of this Germany's future instructors will live in a camp and wear uniform. National Socialism will prevent the use of any reactionary tendency, and all those who do not have the ' natural upward trend of thought ', or have in any way proved themselves to be enemies of the community, will be ruthlessly eliminated." " The school is no longer only an engine of education but also a political training centre which must establish a uniform tradition." " Teachers should never forget that during the last twenty years Germans suffered in this country. They must instil into the hearts of the children hate of the foreigner." " The final aim of all education must be that German youth, free of egotism and without reserve, takes its place in the defence of the country." The scorn and contempt which these detestable doctrines naturally arouse must not blind us to the terrible effect they have had and are having on German youth. It is with no smug self-satisfaction that we realize that we are fighting against spiritual wickedness in high places. It will be a long and painful process to eradicate the effects of such teaching, even with malice towards none of its victims, though the evil men who are responsible for it must be rendered harmless. It used to be said that we had to live in the same world with the Nazis, and that what they did in their own country was no concern of ours. Who would repeat this now ? S. B. L.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN NEW ZEALAND

THIS* useful addition to the literature on Vocational Guidance resulted from a request by the Minister for Education that a survey should be made of the methods and organization of vocational guidance in New Zealand. This follows on the establishment in 1938 of Youth Centres in the four main cities, " where all problems relating to educational and vocational guidance of youths are considered jointly by officers of the Education and Labour Departments ". In addition, eight vocational guidance officers were appointed to be attached to the main technical schools. Surely this must put New Zealand well in the forefront as regards the organization of vocational guidance. It is a lead that might well be copied by some education authorities in England and is further evidence of the value of centralization of educational administration in some matters.

The report is framed under these main headings : guidance within the schools and youth centres, aids in guidance, case histories, and suggestions. In the opening chapters some sound educational advice is given to administrators and teachers alike, while the section on youth centres is quite instructive. The aids to guidance, the case histories and suggestions are practical and well selected and should be of value to all concerned with vocational guidance.

F. J. SCHONELL.

* **Vocational Guidance in New Zealand.** By H. C. McQUEEN. (6s. 6d. net. New Zealand Council for Educational Research. Oxford University Press.)

TOPICS AND EVENTS

THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION

The Annual Meeting of the Classical Association was held at St. Hilda's College, Oxford, on the kind invitation of the Governing Body and the Principal, on April 21 and the following days. About 200 members attended.

The retiring President, Sir Richard Livingstone, President of Corpus, chose as the subject of his address, " The Classics in National Life." There is an aspect of the classics, he said, apparently unknown to many critics of a classical education, the influence of Greek and Latin in the national mind, partly through poets and thinkers, partly through men of action whose education had been predominantly classical. We lived in a world clear, efficient and creative in the realm of means but almost wholly at sea about its ends. The Greeks had a clear and consistent view of life ; and a man brought up on Greek had a pattern with which to compare his own time.

Hellenism is an universal culture which a nation can adapt as its own genius and tradition may suggest but which, like Christianity, remains a common bond between all its children.

In his paper on Callimachus, Prof. Pfeiffer described how his remains, six hymns and sixty epigrams which survived in Byzantine collections, and the additional fragments of Bentley's and Schneider's times, were now being enlarged by the discovery of papyri, and gave an analysis of the merits and limitations of the poet, an edition of whose complete works he hopes to produce shortly.

Mr. H. D. F. Kitto (Glasgow) in his paper entitled " Rhythm, Metre and Black Magic ", dealt with the construction of Choric Odes, emphasizing the point that, as they combined poetry, music, and dance, the apparent irregularities should be explained not by transition from " falling " rhythm, dactylic or trochaic, and " rising " rhythms, iambic or anapaestic, but by syllables in which the voice was silent but the music and the dance continued.

Mr. L. P. Wilkinson (King's College, Cambridge) read a paper on " Sound and Sense in Augustan poetry, in which he discussed " Onomatopeia ", not in the formation of individual words, but the role of sounds and rhythms in reinforcing the sense. This element, strong in Homer and the Greek Lyric poets, was not greatly used by the Alexandrines, but Ennius used it freely ; and Virgil and Horace revived it with finer taste and skill. Elegy with its highly regular pentameter, provided less scope for it and even in the Metamorphoses it is but little used by Ovid.

Prof. Dawkins, lately Professor of Byzantine and modern Greek, read a paper on Greek place-names. Some of these have been in continuous use through the centuries, but in many cases ancient names which disappeared through the successive invasions of Greece have been restored. For example Pylos, which has now recovered its ancient name, received from the Slavs a name meaning " the Place of Maple trees ", Italianized into Navarino. In some cases, the Greek name was twisted into something which made sense to the foreigner : thus Hymettos reminded the Italians of *matto*, mad, and they called it Monte Matto. This was translated by the Turks into Deli Dagh, and by the Greeks into Tilebouni. Only in recent years has the ancient name been restored . In many cases the obvious interpretation of a name of Greek appearance is wrong : thus the Tripolis in the Peloponnese does not represent a fusion of three cities, but is a modification of the local name still in use by the peasants, of Droumboltza, the Plain of Oaks. Some names are still inexplicable but in many cases where the various mutations can be traced they are a mirror of history.

Mr. H. I. Bell, of the British Museum, read a paper on anti-Semitism in Alexandria. He supported the view, contrary to that of Josephus and apparently that of Philo, that the Jews were not as a body possessed of citizenship, though they had self-government. Some Jews became very wealthy but the feeling against them does not appear to have been due to envy of their wealth ; one papyrus only makes reference to usury. The hostility to them (which apparently arose after the Ptolemaic period) was based rather on the dislike of Jewish exclusiveness which in its turn was based on their religion. The well-known stories of riot and turbulence found in Philo and Josephus have been supplemented by references in Papyri to later out-

(*Continued on page 264*)

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breaks, and further Embassies to Rome besides that described by Philo. After the time of Hadrian, however, and the crushing of the last revolt in Judaea, the story of turbulence between Greeks and Jews comes to an end, to be succeeded by the riotous disputes between Cyrillines and Athanasians.

The Annual Dinner was held in the Hall of Corpus, where the Vice-Chancellor (the President of Magdalen) in proposing the toast of Greece, said that the soil of Greece had been profaned, but time brought revenge in its own way. The Greek Minister, M. Simopoulos, who was the Guest of the evening, in reply said that whenever he read the funeral oration of Pericles his mind turned to this country as the only one worthy of such praise. In Germany indeed Greek letters had been cultivated but not the Greek spirit; otherwise we should not see the youth of that country surrendering its soul without protest to a gang which had made it share in the criminal aims of destroying the liberties of peoples and the right to freedom of thought.

L. J. MORISON.

THE GEOGRAPHICAL ASSOCIATION

THE Geographical Association held its combined Annual and Spring Conference in Edinburgh, April 17–20, 1941. Special attention was paid to current affairs. Prof. J. L. Myres dealt with " The Position of Greece in the Eastern Mediterranean ", and referred to the repeated resurgence of civilizing movements in the midst of poverty in material resources. In ancient times Greeks formed colonial state cities; in modern days they have made themselves at home far and wide, and have typically sought to combine devotion to Greece with loyalty to the country of their adoption. Their former long subjection to the Turk has led them to attach great importance to their association with the Church and its Bishops.

Prof. P. M. Roxby spoke on " The Changing Structure of Chinese Society " from a scheme worked out by scholar bureaucrats to the modern movement for agrarian reform and peasant emancipation, which has been rather misnamed ' Communism '. Industrial growth is taking place in ' Free China ', *i.e.* the west and south-west, and co-operation is being encouraged actively.

Prof. H. J. Fleure dealt with " The Mediterranean and Islam ", suggesting the varied reactions of Turks, Palestinians, Arabs, Egyptians, Senussi, Berbers, and others, who were passing from a life governed by tradition to the complex organization of modern times.

Prof. Ogilvie discussed the physical setting of Edinburgh with the many parallel east and west ridges and the glacial channels which complicate the drainage of the district. Mr. F. C. Mears followed Prof. Ogilvie with an account of Edinburgh as a product of historical development, and emphasized the castle as the original nucleus, with the subordinate nucleus of strangers, making a kind of Aventine colony, round the Church, which is, therefore, appropriately dedicated to St. Giles. The decline of the High Street and the rise of Princes Street and George Street were interestingly sketched.

During the Conference there were two informal discussions at which members were able to exchange views and experiences. There were also conducted walks around Edinburgh, a visit to the Geological Survey House, and an excursion to Stirling.

H. J. FLEURE.

LING PHYSICAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

THE Ling Physical Education Association held its Easter Holiday Course at the Bedford Physical Training College from April 15 to 19. Mr. Chuter Ede, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, speaking on the problems of educational reconstruction which would face us after the war, considered that the present was the time when we should clearly state our aims and analyse the practical legislative and administrative actions involved in their achievement. As soon as the raising of the school-leaving age was effected, all schools of post-primary character should be placed under the regulations governing secondary schools. When reformed administrative regulations gave us new chances of development, school buildings would need detailed consideration. New schools built to replace those destroyed in the war would make adequate provision for the physical education of the future. Again, in the new town plans the position of the school would be given attention. The social conscience of to-day should protect us against the cramped, noisy, malodorous sites which restrict education in many places. Equally, present school buildings, elementary and secondary, in many instances needed drastic overhauling to ensure the health of the children attending them. Mr. Ede spoke with approbation of the camp schools; in the future they would occupy a much more prominent position in the educational system. Their educational value had been established beyond all doubt in training in good social habits, in improving physique, in bringing reality into routine lessons, and in offering opportunity for initiative on the part of teachers and pupils. In the national education programme after the war the position of physical education would be higher than ever before. Co-operation between medical officers and physical training teachers must be still further cultivated; expert physical training specialists must be found in the junior as well as the secondary schools; teachers of physical training must be eligible for promotion to headships.

Dr. Beneš gave a moving account of the struggles of the Czechoslovak people to establish in their country a system of education on a spiritual and moral basis. Among other lecturers were Dr. Janet Aitken of the Elizabeth Garrett Anderson Hospital, Miss Colson of the Directorate of Physical Recreation, and Mr. Claude Bridges, Assistant Secretary to the Middlesex Education Committee.

BRONWEN LLOYD-WILLIAMS.

LONDON TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

THE London Teachers' Association has performed a valuable piece of work in drawing up a memorandum on " Education of London Children in Time of Emergency ". Sufficient teaching staff must be found to allow a margin for all eventualities, more especially to meet the exceptional demands of the situation in respect of the wide age ranges of the children, and the effects of frequent air-raid warnings, travelling, and general conditions under which teachers work during war-time.

The policy outlined looks forward to the planned and complete restoration of school life. The educational needs of the child population are paramount. Under present conditions no class should be over 30 in number. There is need to stress the point that attempts to requisition teaching personnel for other duties, even on a voluntary basis, should be resisted if it means that the schools will be denuded of necessary teaching power. There should be no diminution, but rather a relative increase in the quantity of school dinners and milk meals provided. Text-books are sadly needed.

The position in Reception Areas also receives attention. The policy of dispersal has, it is said, abundantly justified itself, but billeting problems still remain. The retention of the entity, if not the identity, of London units is a matter of paramount importance if the ' home ' and ' team ' spirit of young Londoners is to be kept alive.

We hope that the recommendations in the Memorandum will receive the support they deserve.

Board of Education Circulars and Memoranda.—*Circular* 1548 deals with the working of the Milk in Schools

(*Continued on page* 266)

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Scheme, refers to some of the difficulties which arise in connexion with the scheme, and suggests ways in which local education authorities and teachers can help to facilitate the task of the distributors.

Circular 1549 directs attention to a new form (Form 42D) now prescribed as the form of certificate required for mentally defective children within the meaning of the Education Act and suitable for admission to a special school for mentally defective children.

Circular 1550 refers to the reservation of students admitted to training colleges under certain ages.

Circular 1551 is on the subject of school children's gas-masks. It stresses the need for the carrying of masks, for practice in wearing them, and for their regular examination. A.R.P. authorities are being advised that the gas-masks of children attending grant-aided schools should be reserviced or replaced without charge.

Administrative Memorandum No. 290 gives guidance to headmasters on the position following the registration for military service of boys born in 1922 and 1923 who wish to proceed to universities.

Administrative Memorandum No. 291 refers to surface shelters built with lime-mortar.

Administrative Memorandum No. 292 deals with the allowance of cheese, and jam and other preserves, for school canteens.

Administrative Memorandum No. 293 deals with supplies of equipment for games, physical training, nursery activities, &c., which were restricted under the Limitation of Supplies Order, 1940. The Board of Trade have agreed to relax this restriction in order to avoid undue interference with essential war services such as the Youth Service, Day Nurseries, Nursery Centres, and Play Centres, and have issued a General Licence authorizing manufacturers and wholesalers to supply goods of Class 13 outside their quotas to local authorities on production of Form 550G issued by H.M. Inspector of Schools.

Administrative Memorandum No. 294, "Salaries of Teachers in Public Elementary Schools", gives details of the amendments to Section 8 of the Burnham Elementary Report, 1938, which have been approved by the Burnham Committee. The amendments have been accepted by the Board for grant purposes.

A *Notice* issued by the Board in concurrence with the Ministry of Labour states that, in view of the growing difficulties of staffing the schools, it is not desired that Grade III and Grade IV teachers should enrol for courses of training for war production work. Women teachers are urged to continue their teaching service. Women students leaving the training colleges at the end of the summer term should take up the teaching work for which they have been trained. Men teachers who registered on April 5 last under the Registration for Employment Order are not likely to be called upon to leave their schools for other occupations.

Fire Watching — Compensation. — The Ministry of Home Security has issued an explanatory Memorandum on the Fire Prevention (Business Premises) Order, 1941, for the guidance of appropriate authorities, occupiers of business premises, and persons working at these premises. Since schools are regarded as 'business premises' for the purpose of the above Order, schoolmasters who are required to undertake fire prevention duties are eligible to receive compensation under the Personal Injuries (Civilians) Scheme in respect of 'war service injuries', provided their names have been registered by the local authority. A civil defence volunteer under the Scheme receives compensation wider in scope than that to which other civilians are entitled. He becomes eligible in respect of physical injuries which arise out of and in the course of the performance of his duties. He will be entitled to compensation, for example, if he slips and injures himself while on duty, though no raid is in progress at the time.

Copies of the Memorandum may be obtained free of charge from the Publications Department of the Ministry of Home Security, Horseferry House, Thorney Street, S.W. 1, and we understand that the Ministry of Pensions will shortly issue a leaflet explaining the provisions of the revised Personal Injuries (Civilians) Scheme.

Fire Watching in Schools.—Replying to a question in the House of Commons on the subject of fire watching in schools by children under 14 years of age, Mr. Chuter Ede said: "In *Circular* 1542 it was suggested that school fire prevention parties might be recruited from, amongst other sources, older students and trainees. It was not contemplated that school children under 16 years of age, which is the minimum age specified in the Defence Regulations for compulsory enrolment, should be employed on fire prevention duties, and I should strongly deprecate any such practice. I have seen reports in the Press about the employment as fire-watchers of children under 14 in one area and I am taking the matter up with the local education authority concerned. I have no evidence that the cost of providing food for members of school fire-parties has fallen upon teachers, and the need should not arise since local education authorities were authorized in the Circular to meet reasonable claims for expenditure on extra meals and travelling expenses actually incurred by members of fire-parties in schools within the public system of education."

Supervision of Pupils on Field Work.—We referred last month to the award of heavy damages against the headmaster of Warwick School because a boy lost an eye when a school party undertook work for a farmer. The Education General Purposes Committee of the Warwick County Council remarks that Circular 1541 from the Board of Education, which suggests that parties of secondary school pupils should be organized *under proper supervision* to visit local farms, assumes special importance in the light of the above action. "It is, in our view, impossible and it would be extremely costly if it were possible to provide the amount of supervision contemplated in the judgment. Headmasters and headmistresses are already showing great reluctance to organize parties of pupils and thus expose themselves to risk of action for damages. There is little doubt that the country will suffer badly during the coming summer if pupils are going to be withheld from agricultural work because of this risk. We therefore strongly recommend:

> "That the Ministry of Agriculture and the Board of Education be informed that the Education Committee view with great concern the possible failure of the scheme for the employment of children in agriculture, outlined in Board of Education Circular 1541, unless teachers can be indemnified against the consequences of accidental injury to pupils engaged on farm work."

The A.M.A., in commenting on this case, says that, when a school organizes a party for such a purpose, the most satisfactory thing to do is to limit it to those pupils whose parents have signed an indemnity form. In the circumstances, this would appear to be a reasonable precaution.

Schoolboys Needed for the Harvest.—Many more schoolboys will be needed this year to help farmers to bring the harvest home. The Minister of Agriculture has therefore asked County War Agricultural Committees to get into touch with schools in their counties to make further arrangements for schoolboy harvest camps. Information and suggestions about forming these camps have been sent to headmasters of all public and secondary schools. The Ministry is prepared to supply camp equipment free of charge if necessary, and to meet up to half of any loss sustained by bad weather or other circumstances beyond the school's control.

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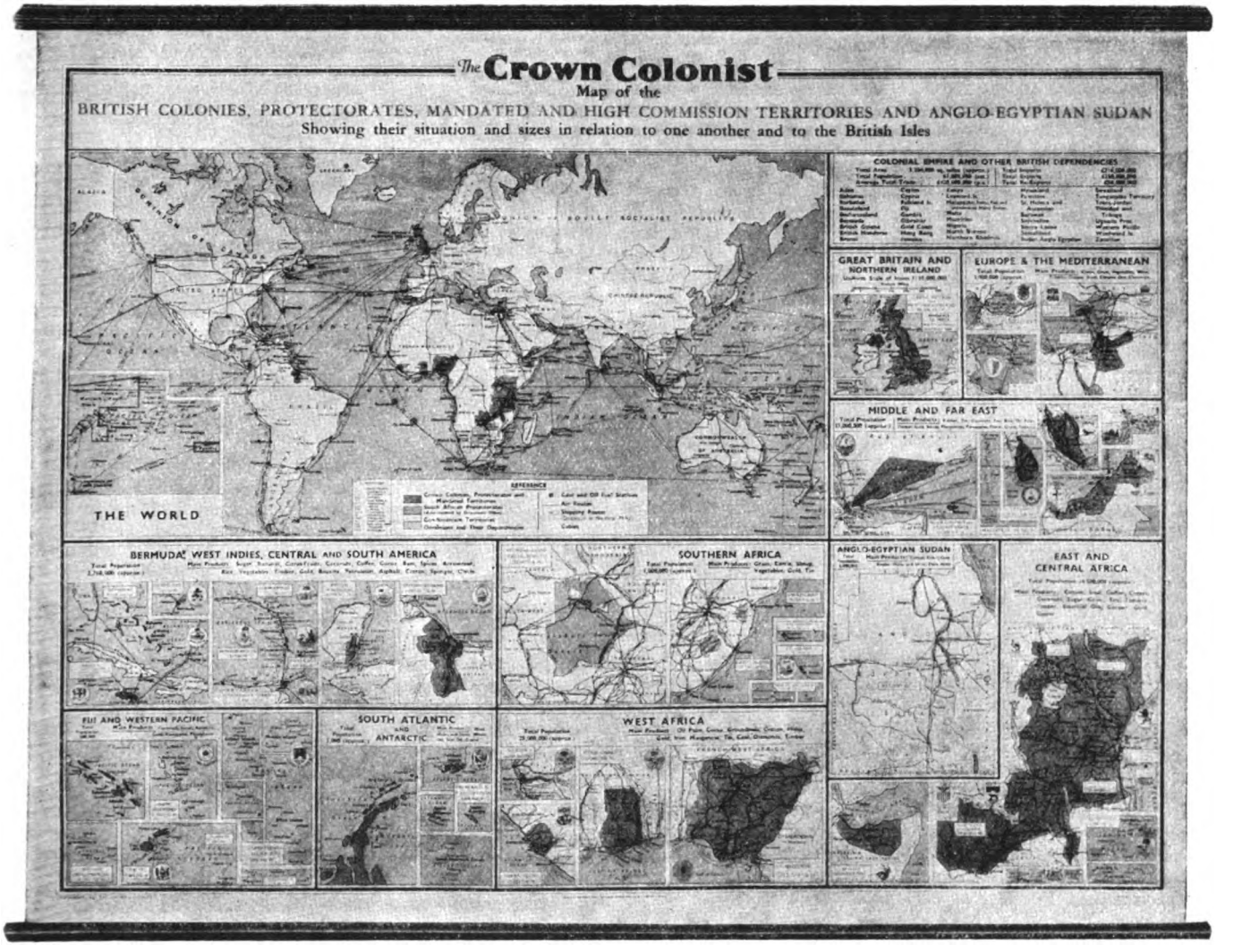

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Curriculum Reform.—The Committee on Curriculum Reform, composed of members of various educational organizations, held their second series of meetings at Oxford during the week-end of April 18 to 21. Plans were made to carry out an extensive research into all aspects of the school curriculum both in the primary and post-primary stages. The work will be undertaken by a number of sub-committees, each covering a group of related activities in the curriculum. A coordinating committee has been appointed to give general direction to the research, and to link the work of the sub-committees together, so as to prepare, by stages, a final report. It is specially desired to receive information from as many sources as possible, and any teachers or persons engaged in education work are invited to submit to the committee memoranda, reports, or suggestions with special reference to experiments in curriculum reform. Such material should be addressed to the Secretary (Mr. A. K. C. Ottaway), Hengwm Hill, Knighton, Radnorshire.

Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland.—The resignation is announced at September 30 of Dr. James Robb, Secretary to the Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland. Dr. Robb, who is a graduate in Arts and Divinity of St. Andrews University and in Law of Edinburgh University, received the honorary degree of LL.D. from St. Andrews University in 1932. He has been associated with the Trust for the past 37 years, first as Assistant and subsequently, from 1919, as Secretary in succession to the late Sir William McCormick. Dr. Robb's successor from October 1 will be Mr. J. R. Peddie, C.B.E., D.Litt., who has been Executive Officer of the National Committee for the Training of Teachers since 1925. Dr. Peddie is one of the pioneers in Scotland of broadcasting and is now chairman of the Scottish Area Council of the B.B.C. for Group Listening. He is vice-chairman of the Scottish Branch of the British Institute of Adult Education. Since the outbreak of the war Dr. Peddie has been active in work connected with education in H.M. and Allied Forces, and is at present chairman of the Scottish Coordinating Committee of the Central Advisory Council. He has had long experience as examiner for public examinations and is at present External Examiner in English at Edinburgh University.

An Agreed Christian Order.—A remarkable demonstration of Christian co-operation was made in London on May 10 and 11, when two mass meetings were held in the Stoll Theatre, Kingsway, presided over on the Saturday by His Eminence Cardinal Hinsley, and on Sunday by His Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury.

The meetings were convened by the Sword of the Spirit Movement, founded last August by Cardinal Hinsley to build up a public opinion on the issues at stake in the war and in the future peace settlement, and to seek the co-operation of "all Christians and men of goodwill" in making known the principles of Christianity and the natural law that the totalitarian States are attacking.

The subject on the first day was "A Christian International Order". Cardinal Hinsley was in the chair, and the speakers included the Anglican Bishop of Chichester (Dr. G. K. A. Bell), Mr. Richard O'Sullivan, K.C., and the Headmaster of Rugby (Mr. Hugh Lyon). On the second day the theme was "A Christian Order for Britain", and Anglican, Catholic, and Free Church speakers contributed, under the chairmanship of the Archbishop of Canterbury. The speakers were the Acting Free Church Moderator (Dr. Sidney Berry), Christopher Dawson, Miss Dorothy L. Sayers, and Fr. Martin D'Arcy, S.J. Part of the proceedings on the Sunday were broadcast by the B.B.C.

The meetings came as a climax to three months of joint Christian work in following up the famous *Times* letter of December 21 last, in which a united lead on the Foundations of Peace had been given by the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, Cardinal Hinsley, and the Moderator of the Free Church Federal Council. This letter had adopted, as the indispensable foundation of any settlement after the war, the Five Peace Points of Pope Pius XII and five economic 'standards'.

At the conclusion of the Stoll Theatre meetings the following Resolution was passed, and will be communicated to the various Governments mentioned in it:

"That this meeting, fully representative of Christian opinion throughout the country, endorses the letter in *The Times* of December 21 last . . . and recommends the ten points of that letter to the Governments of Britain and the Commonwealth, and of Allied States, as the basis of any future statement of War and Peace Aims that may be issued by them."

It is much to be hoped that the co-operation among Christians that has been reflected in these demonstrations will not be allowed to flag. The appearance of speakers from different communions upon a common platform and under joint chairmanship, to handle questions of social and international order, is a landmark in our history.

Canada's Guests.—Some 6,000 British children have been received into Canadian homes since the 'blitz' on this country began last August. Canadian Pacific have now issued an attractively illustrated brochure showing how some of these children have settled down in their new environment.

Summer Music-Week.—The Society for the Advancement of Music in Education announces a "Summer Music-Week" under the direction of Mr. Cyril Winn, H.M.I., senior music inspector of the Board of Education. The dates are August 1 to 8, and the site a beautiful house in Hertfordshire. There will be accommodation for some 60 students. The mornings will be devoted to courses in various branches of music, and there will also be tutorial classes for individual problems. Recorder-playing and music-making are other attractions, and instruments of any kind should be brought for forming an extempore orchestra. In every way this is to be a friendly and informal holiday-week. Mr. Herbert Foss is the manager and all inquiries should be addressed to him at 60 Corringham Road, London, N.W. 11 (or by phone to City 3377).

"Greece and Rome."—In the review of *Greece and Rome* which appeared on page 213 of our May number, it was stated that "in future the size of *Greece and Rome* will be reduced". Actually the reduction took place in the October number, which consisted of 48 pages against the previous 64 pages, and there has been no further reduction since, nor will there be. "Anoonius" was a misprint for "Ausomus".

Oxford Pamphlets on World Affairs.—The publishers announce that the price of these pamphlets, which has remained at 3d. ever since the series was first launched in 1939, has been raised to 4d from May 15, 1941.

Messrs. Allen & Unwin, Ltd.—George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., who recently lost over a million books by enemy action, announce the purchase of the educational publishing business of Elkin Mathews & Marrot, Ltd., whose "Three Stream Series" and "Look and Learn" Histories and Geographies have been such outstanding successes. They have at the same time acquired all the copyrights in all the publications previously the property of Elkin Mathews & Marrot, Ltd. All orders and inquiries should be addressed to Allen & Unwin at 40 Museum Street, W.C. 1.

Messrs. Blackie & Son, Ltd.—Blackie & Son, Ltd., whose London Office at 50 Old Bailey was recently destroyed by enemy action, have opened temporary offices at 66 Chandos Place, London, W.C. 2, where all inquiries will receive prompt attention.

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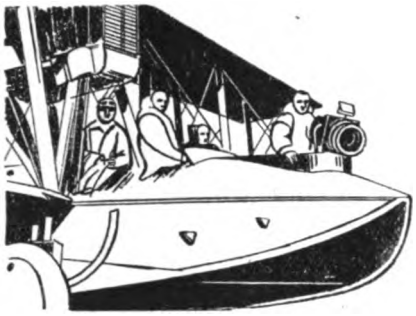
Remarkable for the excellence of its maps and pictures.—*Journal of Education*



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THE appearance of four volumes of the remarkable McGraw-Hill Series in Education, making thus far twenty-two volumes in all, forms a suitable opportunity for a brief comparison of America's educational ways with our own. At all times the study of comparative education is most fruitful when it seeks out the reasons, historical and social, which underlie marked differences between educational methods and institutions—between the American high school, for example, and the English secondary school. At the present time, and looking ahead to the future relations between the two countries, sympathetic understanding is more important than attempts at direct evaluation.

Several volumes in this series have already been noticed in the *Journal*. Among them we recall with special pleasure J. H. Newlon's *Education for Democracy in Our Time*. Of the four new volumes R. Schorling's *Student Teaching*[1] is the most general in its scope. It is written by the supervisor of directed teaching in the department of education in the University of Michigan, and is meant for the guidance of persons undergoing professional training as teachers. We are inevitably reminded of our own books with similar aims. But there are differences. The American book is more comprehensive and more scientific. In both respects it seems a heavy load to place on the backs of student-teachers. But there are compensations. Some of the pages sparkle with humour and with apt quotations, such as President Angell's remark that to be a good administrator you have to be blind in one eye and deaf in one ear; and the tired student-teacher's humorous but not irreverent remark that " God surely had class-room teachers in mind when He put a night between two days ". British trainers of teachers should take note of this book.

The next book, by H. Sorenson, President of a State teachers' college, is also designed for the use of teachers in training, its subject being educational psychology.[2] The author has not written a systematic treatise on psychology with educational asides, but, wisely we think, has dealt with educational problems in the light of the psychologist's findings. He belongs to no one school of psychology, believing that no psychologist of any school is entirely wrong or entirely right; but he subscribes fully to the prevailing American faith in experimental and statistical psychology, not without warnings, however, against drawing hasty conclusions from calculated intelligence quotients. In places, as in the chapter on the principles of learning, the treatment is too condensed to be of great use. If space allowed, we should like to explain why the treatment of examinations seems to a British writer inadequate. We must add, however, that this is a well-constructed manual, evidently the work of one who knows the needs of students.

Here we leave the education of children in general, the two remaining books having a more specialized outlook. In his *Education of Exceptional Children*[3] A. O. Heck, of the Ohio State University, has, however, specialized in the very wide subject of children who are in any way exceptional. His group is restricted, but within the group are all sorts and sizes. There are the socially handicapped, including those who are sent to what we call a reformatory, but what the Americans call a state training-school. There are the physically handicapped, including the crippled, the blind, the deaf and in fact all those cases for which we provide our special schools. Then there are children succinctly described as " of low I.Q.", whom we should more cautiously describe as backward. And lastly, to complete the list of the exceptional, there are the gifted children with exalted I.Q's. The range seems unmanageably wide. Yet the author has done his job most ably and thoroughly, for he has told America what she is doing, and what she ought to be doing, for children who are in any way abnormal. Distinguished American educators have declared that their form of democracy has never been fair to the gifted child. Prof. Heck declares that the statement is equally true of all manner of exceptional children—for which reason he issues this vigorous " challenge to teachers, parents and laymen ".

Fair play to the gifted child, with vital consequences to leadership in a democracy, is further insisted upon in H. A. Carroll's more specialized treatise *Genius in the Making*.[4] His object is " to present a picture of the intellectually gifted individual, especially as he appears in childhood ". Most appropriately he dedicates the book to the memory of Leta Hollingworth, whose contributions to the subject make her an authority. With the exception of the important pioneer work of Galton, British work in this field of investigation does not shine beside that of America. Perhaps this is partly because, by means of her scholarship system, Britain has in practice, during the past thirty-five years, actually given certain opportunities to children of superior talent. Prof. Carroll's book is a valuable summary, based upon thorough familiarity both with psychological research and with educational practices.

[1] **Student Teaching: An Experience Program.** By R. SCHORLING. (17s. 6d. McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.)

[2] **Psychology in Education.** By H. SORENSON. (19s.)

[3] **The Education of Exceptional Children: its Challenge to Teachers, Parents, and Laymen.** By Prof. A. O. HECK. (26s.)

[4] **Genius in the Making.** By H. A. CARROLL. (19s.)

A FREE VOICE FROM ITALY

THE appearance of a new book by Benedetto Croce* would at any time be an event of importance. That this vigorous assertion of spiritual values—this ringing challenge to all authoritarian systems of thought—should have been written from Naples in 1938 by the greatest living Italian approaches the miraculous. Hegel's statement that history is the history of liberty is given by Croce a new intention and content. " Liberty is the eternal creature of history, and itself the subject of every history. . . . Our history is the history of the Soul, and the history of the Soul is the history of the world."

Croce repeats the warning which he uttered in his *Æsthetic* of " the danger of categories ". Historians must free themselves from mechanical subjection to chronological periods and to abstract and unreal classifications like ' romantic ', ' classical ', ' transitional ', and the like. There is no such thing as ' pure ' history—history without a problem and without philosophy. True history involves judgment as a prelude to action. " Only historical judgment liberates the spirit from the pressure of the past: . . . it alone opens the way to the development of action, and in the process of action to the struggle of good against bad, of useful against harmful, beautiful against ugly, true against false—in a word, value against non-value."

Croce condemns alike " the immorality which has developed out of corrupt sections of the great German philosophies and has now assumed a monstrous aspect and proportion ", and the cowardice which, under the plea of historical necessity, is a negation of history, which is activity. He speaks with scorn of those who " would substitute for thought and action an instilled and obligatory belief, and for the deliberation of the will obedience ". To this class belong the racialists with their fantastic idea of a superior race endowed with all the virtues. Because Germans have

* **History as the Story of Liberty.** By BENEDETTO CROCE. Translated by Sylvia Sprigge. (12s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

(*Continued on page 272*)

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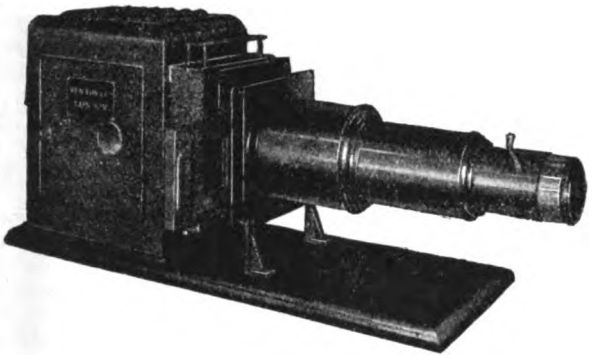

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repudiated the ideal of liberty, they have become " a mere brute family and race ". " The moral man, the religious man, has the duty of always defying the race prejudice." He must " fight it incessantly, and continually re-establish the consciousness of a single humanity ". Italians are not a reincarnation of the ancient Romans, but a new people, with their evil and their good closely joined to the whole world of their moment of history. " The adoration of the State and of might, born in Germany and introduced among other people, is a base affection not of citizens, but of liveried servants and courtiers, for might as such, which is vainly adorned with sacred and moral emblems. . . . Culture or civilization is always superior to the State." He condems, too, the Marxists with their materialistic concepts and pseudo-categories. History is falsified when the economic struggle is regarded as the only effective motive, while religion, morals, philosophy, are relegated to the realm of the imagination. He regards, too, as an enemy to liberty any religion which attempts to dominate men through hope and fear, which weakens their minds and " makes them docile towards itself and incapable of thought and rebellion ". Rivals of such a religion are " the religions of Nation, of Race, and of Communism, with their acts of worship so offensive to humanity ". A transcendental God " is a stranger to human history ";—yet, " from the wideness of the historical vision, the mind reaches to the living God, and from the uplift of the heart in inspiration and in intimate prayer one passes to practical action ".

To Croce poetry and history " are two wings of the same breathing creature, the two linked moments of the knowing mind ". The human race, he says, has never set up other standards than those called the beautiful, the true, the useful, and the good. It is profitable and salutary to reduce social wrongs by economic reforms, but evil " cannot be conquered with economic means, but solely with moral means ". The pact between Nazi Germany and Communist Russia lends additional point to Croce's remark that " Marx was nearer than one imagines to Prussianism and to its cult of brutal force ". " Communism is constrained even against the intentions of its authors to enter upon the beaten trail which every absolutism, every despotism, every tyranny, has always entered upon. This is to place one or more rulers on one side and a multitude of ruled on the other, and to impose upon the ruled a uniform rule of life which treats the latter not as men but as subject material, and makes of society not a living organism but a mechanism."

Croce rejects the crude idea of a progress towards the terminus of some blessed state of self-satisfaction, but, though everything is transitory, " yet now and again there is achievement ", just as art and poetry " are never self-satisfied, but always create new forms, whose created works stand there like deities upon a serene Olympus, abounding in strength and in beauty ". Reality is history and is only historically known. The scientists certainly measure it and classify it as necessary, but properly speaking, do not know it, nor is it their business to know its intrinsic nature. Hence the futility of those " who fondly hope to remodel the whole of culture upon the basis of the physical sciences. . . . The reading of histories of humanity in which everything is said to be the result of external causes, and in which value and non-value, truth and falsehood, good and evil, and the beautiful and the ugly are put on the same level, equalized and made to tally with each other, and thought is compared (to use the ill-famed words of naturalists and positivists) to ' secretions like urine ', and truth to ' a chemical adulteration like vitriol ' saddens our hearts, and that sadness is shame for ourselves and for that humanity to which we belong, a shame which leads to indignation and rebellion."

When war threatens, men feel themselves to be neither enslaved nor oppressed by the temporary renunciation of such liberties as freedom of speech or of trade, but rather glory in it. Liberty may at times be submerged, but it cannot be destroyed. " To assert that liberty is dead is the same thing as saying that life is dead. . . . Even the anguish that men feel for liberty that has been lost, the invocations, the lost hopes, the words of love and anger which come from the hearts of men in certain moments and in certain ages of history . . . are movements of moral conscience ; they are history in the making. . . . Even were the worst to occur, it would have to be faced in a manly way, with confidence in the inexhaustible and renewed virtues of humanity."

This is, indeed, ' a book that matters '.

" E. K. S."

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

By Dr. BASIL YEAXLEE, Reader in Educational Psychology, Oxford University

THE progress made during the last twenty years towards solution of the thorniest problem in education is undoubtedly due in large measure to the adoption by most local education authorities of Agreed Syllabuses of Religious Instruction. Excellent as the earliest of these were, they had their weaknesses. The pioneer authorities—Cambridgeshire and the West Riding, for example—have therefore produced revised and extended editions which are in effect new books, and are finding still wider acceptance than their predecessors. The Surrey Education Committee has rendered a notable service by producing still another,[1] prepared with no less thoroughness and devotion, which makes quite a fresh approach and is worked out on distinctive lines.

A simple and clear-cut aim is maintained throughout, namely, to provide the teacher with " Content of lessons in Biblical studies, and on the effects of Christ's teaching on the world." There is material for every age-group from the nursery class to the fourth year in the senior school. An appendix on " Some of the Problems of Religion and Life " serves either as a special course for the top of the school, or as guidance to the teacher in pursuing his own studies and answering the more difficult questions which children ask. The bibliography is well chosen for this purpose also.

In each year's work there are two sections, one on religious knowledge and the other on the Christian life ; the practical aspect of religion is thus never lost sight of. The pervading emphasis is on the life and teaching of Jesus, but with great skill the Old Testament (including the Apocrypha) and the story of the Christian Church from its foundation until now are related to the Gospels and the Acts. Room is found, too, for a series of lessons on worship and another on translations of the Bible, from the Septuagint and the Vulgate to modern versions. The syllabus is comprehensive but never scrappy or ill-balanced, and teachers are repeatedly urged, if they cannot compass it all, to preserve the main outline and drop details. Though the scheme is so fully set out and so much relevant information is given, there is no attempt to do the teacher's work for him. He must make his own lessons, as any teacher worthy of the name invariably does. Those who use this Syllabus must start with a reasonable store of knowledge and work steadily at the subject-matter as they go. This is as it should be, and no training college which sends its students out unprepared, if they wish to teach scripture, to tackle a Syllabus like this should regard itself as efficient.

Some criticisms suggest themselves. It is curious in these days to find Ezra placed before Nehemiah without question. Surely it was Jesus, and not the Jewish prophets, who identified the Suffering Servant and the Messiah. There seems to be no reason for repeating the stories of the Feeding of the Five Thousand and the Stilling of the Storm in each of the first three or four years. In the appendix course the treatment of the problem of suffering misses the

[1] Syllabus of Religious Instruction : 1941. (1s. Surrey County Council Education Committee).

(Continued on page 274)

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point that the sufferer's attitude to what he is called to undergo is of supreme importance, while " Problems of the Person of Christ and the Cross " could not be helpfully dealt with in the two or three sentences given to each. But even an unsympathetic critic could find little to cavil at in the Syllabus, whether concerning subject-matter or concerning method. Teachers will welcome the inspiration and the enlightenment that it yields. Their training and experience will enable them to make effective use of it.

The Surrey Syllabus is approved by the Dioceses of Southwark and Guildford for use in Church of England schools of the county. This is one of the ways in which sectarianism under the dual system is being reduced. Canon Braley's new book,[2] however, advocates the surrender of all Anglican schools to the local education authority on condition that " sound instruction in Christian Faith and morals, and its expression in corporate worship, are included as an integral part of the curriculum of every educational institution which receives Government grants, that the subject is taught by people desirous and able to do so, and that it is inspected by H.M.I's. especially appointed for the purpose ". Dr. Braley would require also the universal adoption of Agreed Syllabuses and provision in all training colleges and university education departments of adequate voluntary courses in the teaching of religion. He further urges " closer co-operation and better mutual understanding between clergy and teachers ", the development by the Church of adult religious education, and the establishment of " a strong Central Council of Youth, to coordinate work among adolescents and to cooperate with the State in the Service of Youth ".

Many people will agree with Dr. Braley that non-provided schools have become both a hopeless burden on the Church, without compensatory gains to herself or to the children, and a source of inevitable weakness, educationally and administratively, to the whole national system. He is perfectly right in maintaining that " the place for the teaching of distinctive Church doctrines is in the homes, the pulpit, the Confirmation class, and Sunday schools of the individual parishes. It is here that the denominational position can be secured ". This, it may be remarked, is the conviction of the Free Churches, and is their answer to those who confuse " Cowper-Templeism " with " Free Church religion ". The reforms proposed by Canon Braley are in themselves not a new programme. They are already widely and strongly supported by representatives of the Churches, the local authorities, and the teachers. But his statement of them introduces a mandatory factor which makes all the difference. He appears to envisage the Board of Education not only as party to a bargain with the Churches, but also as responsible for the religious instruction in all schools and colleges within its ambit. This, however, conflicts with an important principle as well as with the legal position established in 1870 and the tradition which has since become so firmly settled.

That certain legislative changes are now necessary and would prove wholesome can hardly be denied. But their effect should be to remove unfortunate restrictions, not to impair freedom. It is not timidity that prevents the Board from controlling religious instruction, though dread of burnt fingers was no doubt one of the motives for that provision in the Act of 1870, still operative, which throws the whole responsibility, apart from seeing that the Cowper-Temple clause is not infringed, on to what are now the shoulders of the local education authority. It is the members of the actual community whose children are in the school who decide, through their representatives, whether religion shall be taught at all, and if so in what form. This is an application of the principle of local option which is particularly relevant and desirable in the case of religion, where the utmost freedom, within necessary bounds, is essential. But something yet more vital is involved. Unless not only the teachers but also the parents are genuinely concerned, and unless the life and teaching of the home are congruent with the religious teaching given in the school, the latter, as Canon Braley himself so forcibly reminds us, is more than likely to fail in its purpose. We shall make no real advance till we trust the teachers, without attempting to apply doctrinal tests, and enlist the active co-operation of the parents so that they also may seek to equip themselves to play their part. Merely to require by law that religion shall be taught in every grant-aided school would leave the situation worse rather than better.

Dr. Braley's book is unfortunately very loosely put together. Even his quotations are not always accurate. But it contains a virile challenge, and it deals trenchantly with many matters which at present constitute abuses and grievances or interfere with the teacher's freedom to accept or refuse the work of religious instruction. He throws a searching light upon denominational colleges, without, of course, suggesting that none of them can escape condemnation. With regard to the inclusion of religious knowledge as an optional subject in the teacher's certificate examination he makes the very interesting point that, if this were done by all examining groups and universities, it would probably have a stimulating and beneficial effect upon the teaching of scripture in secondary schools.

We have suffered too long from legal negations on the one hand and safeguard by credal subscription on the other. The only policy which will secure what is so honestly desired by all parties is a courageous one. It is the policy of the agreed syllabus, the willing and well-equipped teacher, and the live Church which inspires education, as it does all else in the life of the individual and the community, without in any sense controlling the school or the teacher. The question is whether we have faith enough in the truth that makes men free.

[2] **A Policy in Religious Education**: by Dr. E. F. Braley. (5s. University of London Press).

EXAMINATIONS AND INTERVIEWS

By Sir PHILIP HARTOG, K.B.E., C.I.E., LL.D.

THE West Riding has a high reputation for its educational work, and the present Report,[1] produced by the joint efforts of an unofficial *ad hoc* Committee, and of the Chief Examiners in English and Arithmetic of the Riding, for its Special Place examination, with the important co-operation of Prof. Godfrey Thomson of Edinburgh and his Moray House staff, does credit to all concerned, though its conclusions will certainly not be accepted without criticism.

The central feature of the Report is a statistical investigation by Prof. Thomson and his staff. They compared, by means of correlation co-efficients, the ranking of head teachers, taken as the best criterion for the present (though not for the future), with (*a*) the existing ' County Minor Scholarship Examination ', which comprises ' old type ' attainment tests in English and Arithmetic and a Group Intelligence Test, and with two other examinations; (*b*) a combination of standardized objective tests and a Group Intelligence Test; and (*c*) a Group Intelligence Test (or Tests) taken alone.

The Committee recommend that the present examination (and also, it would appear, though it is not clearly stated, the present method of selecting candidates for that examination, based on a Preliminary Test in the schools, or on school reports, or on a combination of the two), should be replaced by a single standardized Group Intelligence Test, followed by supplementary tests for children in whose case there is a discrepancy between the examination results and the reports of the teachers. The Chief Examiners in

[1] **Special Place Examinations: the Report of an Investigation by a Joint Committee of the West Riding Teachers' Association and the West Yorkshire County Association of the National Union of Teachers, of the Merits and Defects of some Forms of Special Place Examination.** (2s. 6d. net. University of London Press.)

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English and Arithmetic dissent from the new proposals on grounds which deserve consideration. They suggest in particular that the danger of missing examiners' blunders has been exaggerated, and refer in this matter to a report on the 1939 examination, of which precise particulars are not given, but they do not appear to have tested their own self-consistency.

The Report clearly regards the present state of affairs as a half-way house to a state of affairs when the number of places in secondary schools of different kinds will be sufficient to accommodate all the children fitted to profit by the education which they can afford, and makes suggestions as to the method of selecting the appropriate kind of school for each pupil when that state is reached; and in particular for the form of school record card which should be used, a matter on which the Kent and Wiltshire County Councils have made interesting experiments. The present Chief Examiners point out that there is no place in the record proposed for "ability to write English"—a serious omission.

This is only a brief summary of a somewhat complex Report which deserves careful consideration by all those concerned with Free Place Examinations. It is unnecessary to dwell either on the national importance of selecting the most capable children for higher education, or on the difficulties of a right selection.

Mr. Oldfield's book[2] has an admirable sponsor in Dr. Charles Myers, who tells us that it is based in part on an experimental investigation of the interview under the direction of Prof. Bartlett in which Mr. Oldfield took a share, and also in part on another investigation carried out by the author under Dr. Myers' own supervision. Unfortunately no description of these investigations is given in the book itself, to which they would have lent a sense of actuality which it lacks. Mr. Oldfield appears to have had no experience of his own as a responsible interviewer. His knowledge is mainly derived at second-hand from interviews with interviewers, and from an observational study of actual interviews, at which he was permitted to be present. To the knowledge so acquired he applies his own psychological methods.

He tells us, as the main conclusion which he has reached at the present stage of his inquiry, that "any basic principle governing procedure in the interview for the assessment of personal qualities . . . is best expressed by saying that the task of the interviewer is to evoke the display of attitudes by the candidate, and to form his judgment upon his apprehension of them". We confess that a conscientious perusal of Chapters II and III which deal with 'attitudes' has left us in the dark as to Mr. Oldfield's meaning. We cannot help asking if he himself knows what he means when he tells us that "if an individual be placed in the same situation upon two occasions, his outward behaviour may be very different; and this very change of outward reaction may be determined by the fact that the same attitude has prevailed" (pp. 29, 30). It is clear that a knowledge of a candidate's 'attitudes' in the Oldfieldian sense would be of little help in foreseeing how he would behave in a situation of difficulty as a responsible officer.

With regard to the interview itself, Mr. Oldfield tells us that "a game of tennis and an interview alike are occasions unsuited to the exercise of scientific method". We know from the context what he means though he has not succeeded in saying it. And again he converts another obvious half-truth into what appears to be complete nonsense when he writes, on p. 137, "Never mind *what* the candidate says: note the *way* he says it"

Mr. Oldfield's book itself, though more intelligent in parts than the above examples would indicate, is itself lacking in scientific method. His discussion of the relation of an interview to what is often its immediate purpose—the choice of the candidate most suited to carry out the duties of a particular kind of job or career seems inadequate. It gives not a single illustration of actual conversations at an interview. And though he has interviewed interviewers it seems not to have occurred to him to interview candidates and to obtain their side of the story. Mr. Oldfield advises interviewers to "cultivate the art of conversation". Experienced interviewers sometimes observe with amusement as onlookers the success in conversation of skilful candidates who (quite legitimately) evoke 'attitudes' favourable to themselves in a colleague.

The author explains that "his especial aim in discussing the essentials of the interview in more or less psychological language has been not so much to arrive at practical suggestions or recommendations as to induce a spirit of inquiry among interviewers". How far he will achieve that purpose remains to be seen. At any rate the very title of his book will help to direct more attention to a subject of great importance too much neglected hitherto. And the disarming modesty of his preface, and certain examples of common sense in the book itself, suggest that he might himself do better when he writes again. But he would be well advised to read Descartes' great *Discourse on Method*, both for its content and its style, before he makes his next attempt; and a dose of the delightful William James would not be amiss.

[2] **The Psychology of the Interview.** By R. C. OLDFIELD (5s. net. Methuen.)

BOOKS FOR THE WAR EFFORT

By Dr. A. H. STUART, Headmaster, Day Technical School, Hackney Technical Institute

MANY thousands of men and women are now making acquaintance with a modern engineering workshop for the first time, and in addition to having to learn a new technique they may find themselves in surroundings altogether strange and at first a little disconcerting. For such

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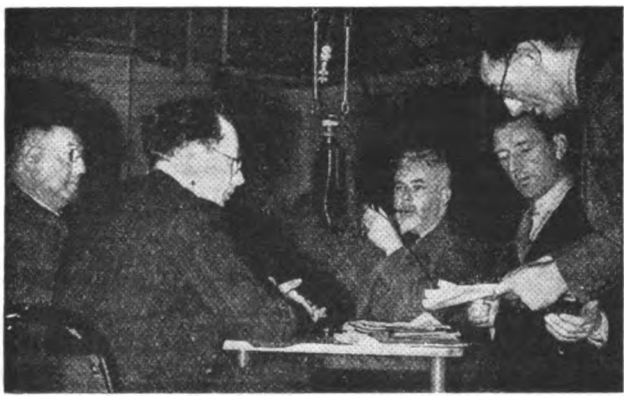

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as these, Dr. Chapman's *Workshop Sense*[1] is excellent. No one suggests that workshop sense can be learnt by reading a book, only practical experience can do that, but the tips which the author gives to the new-comer enables him (or her) to look for the right thing from the start, and much valuable time may thereby be saved and perhaps some painful confusion avoided.

Many aspirants to the Royal Air Force have been told to spend the interval before being called to the colours in learning or revising elementary mathematics. There is not the time and perhaps not the necessity to take a systematic course in academic mathematics. Mr. Brown's *Short Practical Mathematics*[2] gives all that is necessary for this purpose and, what is of prime importance, gives many examples of the application of simple mathematical processes to practical problems.

Mr. Turner's *General Mathematics*[3] is of a more academic type and is intended for use in junior technical schools and the lower forms of secondary schools. It covers the mathematics required by candidates seeking admission to the Royal Air Force and the Fleet Air Arm.

The collection of mathematical data, which occupies about half of the book of *Four-Figure Tables*,[4] originated in a short pamphlet issued to those studying at the Military College of Science. The extension of this collection and its incorporation with an excellent set of mathematical tables have produced a *vade-mecum* which will be the joy of serious mathematical students just as that superb work by the same publishers, Milne-Thomson and Comrie's *Standard Four-Figure Mathematical Tables* is the joy of more experienced mathematical workers.

[1] **Workshop Sense: a Book written for Munition Workers and other Entrants into Productive Industry.** By Dr. W. A. J. CHAPMAN. (1s. 6d. net. Arnold.)

[2] **A Short Practical Mathematics.** By F. G. W. BROWN. (1s. 9d. Macmillan.)

[3] **General Mathematics.** By L. TURNER. Book I. (3s. 6d. Arnold.)

[4] **Four-Figure Tables with Mathematical Formulae.** Compiled by H. C. PLUMMER. (3s. 6d. Macmillan.)

Education

The Education Committees' Year Book, 1941

(21s. net. Councils and Education Press.)

This Year Book contains a list of the staff of the Board of Education and of the members of the Executive Committee of the Association of Education Committees (the County Councils Association is not mentioned). Details are given of the members, staffs, and principal activities of the Education Committees in England and Wales, and similar details are given for Scotland and Northern Ireland. There are sections dealing with the Burnham Committee, and the principal memoranda and circulars issued by the Board of Education. Other sections deal with air-raid shelters, communal feeding, physical training, school-broadcasting, and films. There are lists of the universities and colleges, training colleges, approved schools, and other institutions for physically defective children. The statistical tables give useful details about elementary, secondary, and technical schools. The secretary of the Association in a special section deals with some of the chief aspects of education during the year 1940. The President of the Board of Education in a foreword strikes a confident note. "There is, of course, no ground for complacency, but equally there is no occasion for dismay." The President of the Association in another foreword calls for the utmost effort to see that in the new world which is to emerge out of the war, education occupies its rightful place. On page 545 a bad example of "and which" without any preceding relative has escaped the eye of the editor. A useful and comprehensive book of reference.

History

A History of the United States

By C. CHESTERTON. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Prof. D. W. BROGAN. (Everyman's Library.) (2s. 6d. net. Dent.)

One might hardly have expected Cecil Chesterton's *History of the United States*, written under war conditions nearly a quarter of a century ago, to be reprinted. It was an amateurish piece of work, marked by numerous errors and still more numerous omissions. Further, it was distorted by conspicuous prejudices, due to the curious Chestertonian combination of extreme individualism and zealous Catholicism. Nevertheless, Prof. Brogan's masterly Introduction, and the editor's judicious notes, amply justify the re-issue. They correct Cecil's mistakes, supply his omissions, adjust his prejudiced opinions. Having done so, they point out the conspicuous merits of the book—its lucid style, its infectious enthusiasm, its remarkable appreciation of the American standpoint. It is a book eminently calculated to foster an understanding between the peoples of the two great Anglo-Saxon democracies. Hence we wish it a wide circulation.

Miscellany

1. Look After Yourself: a Hygiene Book

By G. H. PUMPHREY. (8d. Leeds: Arnold.)

2. First Aid Through Photographs

By Dr. L. S. MICHAELIS. Photographs by VERA ELKAN. (1s. 6d. Longmans.)

3. Practical First Aid

(6d. net. McDougall's Educational Co.)

(1) Every boy and girl who reads this book will not only learn how to take care of the human body, but will also enjoy the process of learning the elements of personal hygiene. The jolly side of keeping fit is made all the more interesting by many sketches which appear on almost every page, and the final chapter on First Aid is an apt conclusion to a very useful little book. (2) The idea of *First Aid Through Photographs* is a novel one, and the simple instructions given beneath each photograph give the 'First Aider' an excellent opportunity of learning how to apply bandages and splints efficiently. The text is simply written and the book well indexed. Leaders of Scout Troops and Girl Guide Companies would find this book of real value. (3) In these days of stress the knowledge of First Aid has become a national necessity, and persons equipped with such knowledge may be the means of preventing a great deal of suffering until more expert attention can be obtained. This little book, prepared specially for schools, summarizes simply the general rules of First Aid, gives advice for the preparation of a First Aid outfit, and proceeds to give all instructions necessary for expert bandaging and splinting. Chapters on "Miscellaneous Ailments", "Poisonous Gases Used in Warfare" and "Serious Injuries affecting the Trunk" are useful features in the book, and many illustrations and diagrams will be appreciated by all First Aiders.

1. First Aid Bandaging

2. The Roller Bandage

By W. E. BRADFORD. (No. 1, Cloth, 2s. net.; Paper, 1s. net. No. 2, Cloth, 2s. 6d. net.; Paper 1s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

These are practical little manuals written and clearly illustrated by an expert. They should prove invaluable to students preparing for 'First Aid' and 'Home Nursing' examinations.

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Further particulars may be had from the HEADMASTER, ALDENHAM SCHOOL, ELSTREE, HERTS.

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AN Examination will be held in June, 1941, for three Entrance Scholarships of the value of £60, and four or more Exhibitions of less amount.

Candidates must be under the age of 14 on June 1 immediately before the examination. The age of candidates will be taken into consideration in the examination.

Entries should be received by May 24. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

BEAUMONT COLLEGE

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS are awarded in March and June. Candidates must have taken previously the March or June Common Entrance Examination. A further Examination will be held at the College on March 28 and June 27. For further particulars apply the RECTOR, Beaumont College, Old Windsor, Berks.

BRIGHTON COLLEGE

AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

A number of Gill Memorial Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered each June to sons of Officers or Ex-Officers in H.M. Army. The highest of these awards will amount to half the total fees.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in June, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER, Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

KING'S COLLEGE, TAUNTON

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions varying in value from £60–£20 per annum will be awarded after examination in June, 1941. School fees £105 per annum. Particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY
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THREE Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

TWELVE to Fourteen King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

TWO Milner Memorial Scholarships value £100 per annum for five years, will be offered in June. The Milner Scholarship is open to sons of Colonial Civil Servants and others.

For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

(*a*) Six SCHOLARSHIPS (at least), Classical and Modern, varying from £100 to £50 per annum, according to merit and needs.

(*b*) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

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The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

OUNDLE SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June. For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

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SCHOLARSHIPS

MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES, FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

MALVERN COLLEGE

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held early in March, 1942. Up to five Scholarships of £100 and three or more of £50. A number of Exhibitions and Bursarships also will be offered to boys of all-round ability.

Candidates may take the Examination at their Preparatory Schools or at Malvern.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEADMASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in September.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS M.A. (Cantab.).

SEDBERGH SCHOOL

THE Examination for Ten Entrance Scholarships and Exhibitions, of the annual value of £100 to £40, will be held in May or June, in London and Sedbergh. Candidates must be under 14 years of age on January 1.

For further information apply to the HEADMASTER Sedbergh School, Yorkshire.

WORCESTER ROYAL GRAMMAR SCHOOL

ELD SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination for Eld Scholarships, value up to £80 per annum, will be held on June 10, 11 and 12. Open to Boys under 14 on May 1 next.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

WORKSOP COLLEGE, NOTTS.

AN Examination is held in May or June. Generally two Scholarships are offered of £60 each, two of £40, and two of £30. Candidates must be under 14 years of age. Full particulars and entry forms can be obtained from the HEADMASTER, Worksop College, Notts.

WREKIN COLLEGE,

WELLINGTON, SHROPSHIRE

SCHOLARSHIPS AND EXHIBITIONS

AN Examination is held annually, usually in June, when six Entrance Scholarships are offered for competition, value from 40 to 100 guineas, also six Exhibitions, value 30 guineas.

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Contributors include SIR FRANK FLETCHER, SIR CYRIL NORWOOD, HUGH ELDER, JOHN W. SKINNER, W. F. BUSHELL, Rev. H. K. LUCE, G. R. RENWICK, C. RUSSELL SCOTT, T. K. DERRY, F. C. HAPPOLD, J. F. WOLFENDEN. G. TURBERVILLE, C. R. ALLISON, G. A. RIDING, OSBERT SITWELL, C. S. WALTON, R. KENNARD DAVIS, D. G. E. HALL, E. P. OAKES, C. E. M. JOAD, HAROLD J. LASKI, ANEURIN BEVAN, M.P., A. S. NEILL, W. B. CURRY, T. C. WORSLEY, S. J. DALE, E. W. E. KEMPSON, JOHN WILKES, R.C. UNMACK, R.H. TAWNEY, C. A. MOSER.

Prof. FRED CLARKE, Director of the University of London Institute of Education, summed up the discussion in two articles in the March and April numbers.

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

A MONTHLY RECORD AND REVIEW
with which is incorporated
THE SCHOOL WORLD

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

IN a recent address to teachers, the President of the Board of Education spoke of plans for post-war education, as education is understood in our democratic community. He took the opportunity of emphasizing the need for maintaining and strengthening the hold of the Christian faith upon our schools. A little earlier (April 22) Dr. Rust, Reich Minister for Education, in a broadcast speech in the German home programme, declared the convictions of himself and his party. We do not learn for school, he said, but for life. So far, so good, but what follows? We are thus thrown back, he continued, upon the question—what is life? Hitler, by answering this question, also lays down the task of education. The Führer speaks: "Who wishes to live must fight, and those who will not fight . . . do not deserve to live." "But", continued Dr. Rust, "the conception of a militant world . . . gives birth to the religious strength which links us with the higher will. It is the will of the Creator that the earth should be a field of battle. . . . It is the deepest conviction of Hitler that militant action is the fulfilment of the Divine law. . . . In the selection of leaders of educational institutions . . . the soldierly, National Socialist outlook will always be decisive, not the intellectual qualifications". Dr. Rust confirms the belief we have often expressed—that we are engaged in a religious war—a clash of ideals that cannot live together.

Two Voices.

IN September last there appeared in our contemporary *History* a remarkable article by Professor J. D. Mackie entitled "The Teaching of History and the War". Arising out of that article some comments by Mr. F. S. Marvin, appearing in the March number, are, we think, much to the point. It would, he says, be difficult to state what history has been taught in the schools during the last twenty years, and in particular what attention, if any, has been bestowed upon the League of Nations. He pleads that in any case the ideal of a peaceful world should be introduced in the teaching, and that, in spite of the horrible outburst in the last thirty years, the world has actually become more peaceful in the last century than ever before. War is no longer regarded as a normal, but, by the vast majority of mankind, as a horrible and exceptional thing. "The whole vast population of China, India, Russia and the United States are only too anxious to avoid the devastation which Germany has brought on those countries which unhappily lie within her reach". Mr. Marvin agrees with Professor Mackie that it is worse than useless to avoid the topic of war in history teaching, but he would not have children leaving school with the thought that wars must always be. "With children it is essential to be hopeful, and hope for the world means that wars die out, and that peaceful organizations shall rise again and flourish".

The Spirit of History Teaching.

STORIES about occupied regions across the Channel reach us indirectly, and are occasionally of a kind which illustrate the contrast between types of racial humour. Children are reported to sing, to the tune of "Frère Jacques"—and to the annoyance of German occupiers—a ditty which runs thus:

Straws in the Wind?

"Angleterre, Angleterre
Gagnera, gagnera,
Gagnera la guerre
Gagnera la guerre,
Din, don, din,
Din, don, din."

Not only the children, but also the men and women, and especially perhaps the women, get their sly dig at their solemn-visaged visitors. The letters R.A.F., for example, may be seen boldly inscribed on a wayside wall. In reply to an inquiry by a German official as to the meaning of this outrage, a busy housewife cheerfully and smilingly replies, "Ah, oui, monsieur, Reconnaissance au Führer!" Such stories seem too circumstantial to be set aside as untrue. Perchance they are just straws

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which show which way the wind is really blowing in certain unhappy countries. They recall Byron's lines :

" And if I laugh at any mortal thing,
'Tis that I may not weep ".

A Practical Joke.

THE Nazi newspaper *Paris-Soir* recently published the following contribution from an anonymous correspondent :

Aimons et admirons le Chancelier Hitler
L'eternelle Angleterre est indigne de vivre.
Maudissons, écrasons le peuple d'outre mer ;
Le Nazi sur la terre sera seul à survivre.
Soyons donc le soutien du Führer allemand,
Des boys navigateurs finira l'odyssée ;
A eux seuls appartient un juste châtiment ;
La palme du vainqueur attend la Croix Gammée.

France, the Free French newspaper, points out that the poem should be longitudinally divided so as to read :

Aimons et admirons	Le Chancelier Hitler
L'eternelle Angleterre ;	Est indigne de vivre.
Maudissons, écrasons	Le peuple d'outre mer
Le Nazi sur la terre.	Sera seul à survivre,
Soyons donc le soutien	Du Führer allemand
Des boys navigateurs :	Finira l'odyssée ;
À eux seuls appartient	Un juste châtiment
La palme du vainqueur.	Attend la Croix Gammée.

Education Areas.

IN our last issue we referred to recent speeches of the President of the Board of Education and the General Secretary of the National Union of Teachers. We believe that the Government have every intention of carrying into effect the three main reforms to which Mr. Ramsbotham referred—the raising of the school age to 15, without exemptions, the establishment of day continuation schools, and the inclusion in the secondary school system of all post-primary schools. The reform advocated by Sir Frederick Mander, the abolition of Part III Authorities as such, seems to be the necessary complement to these reforms. As we said in our leading article, March, 1939, " It has long been obvious that the harmonious development of a properly graded and duly interrelated system of secondary education for all demands the elimination of the Part III authorities *as such* ". The alternatives, as it appears to us, are either to leave to the Part III authorities the administration of infant and junior schools in their areas, or to accept the recommendation of the Economy Committee and transfer the educational powers of these authorities to counties and county boroughs. This would probably mean in effect that those Part III authorities with more than 75,000 inhabitants (the limit suggested by the Commission on Local Government) would become county boroughs, and the others would be eliminated. We hope that a fight for the preservation of the powers of the smaller authorities may be avoided, and that one or other of the alternatives we suggest may be adopted by common consent. This, however, is not enough. There is need for the establishment of regional authorities competent to deal with certain large questions which transcend the limits of the present areas of local government. The " miniature Whitehalls ", to which Mr. Brockington takes exception in the June number of this *Journal*, may or may not be desirable, but some form of regional organization is urgently needed.

Agriculture in Education.

THE TIMES recently published a letter from a clerical correspondent saying that " some consideration should be given to education in rural areas in relation to agriculture ". This letter, as was pointed out by another correspondent, gives the unfortunate impression that little or nothing is being done by the schools about agricultural education. Happily this is not true. Attached to the new central schools in many areas are large playing fields, some acres of which are devoted to experiments in the cultivation of the soil, closely linked with laboratory work. Many schools have their Young Farmers' Clubs which train their members in the care of stock and other duties of farmers, while in the history lesson children are now taught less about the Wars of the Roses and more about the Battle of Agriculture, less about Perkin Warbeck and Lambert Simnel and more about Coke of Norfolk and ' Turnip ' Townshend. It would, however, be most unfortunate if the idea became prevalent that such training should be limited to rural areas. Children and adults who live in the country can scarcely fail to have some knowledge of agricultural processes, while those in urban areas are often abysmally ignorant of the place which agriculture should hold in our national life. It is unfortunate too that the letter from the clerical correspondent suggests that the fact that agriculture is a depressed occupation is mainly due to its neglect by educationists. Education can play some part in raising agriculture to the position which it should occupy, but the question is at basis an economic one, and no amount of agricultural education will bring about the desired change unless it is accompanied by an improvement in the economic status of the agricultural worker.

Juvenile Delinquency and Religious Education.

SIR PERCIVAL SHARP has made a spirited reply to the allegations sometimes brought forward about the results of the religious teaching given in council and voluntary schools respectively. It appears that of the cases brought before the Liverpool Juvenile Courts during 1940, 867 were past or present pupils of Council Schools, 178 of Church of England Schools, and 1,096 of Roman Catholic Schools. Excluding Infants' Schools, the number of delinquents per 1,000 works out at 21·6 for Council Schools, 35·6 for Church of England Schools, and 45·5 for Roman Catholic Schools. " It would appear ", says Sir Percival, " that by the supreme test upon which religious training must be judged, in Liverpool the Non-provided School system does not show in any degree any better moral training than the Council School system : quite the reverse ". He goes on to mention other towns, saying that in Leeds and Newcastle-upon-Tyne the rate of delinquency in Council Schools is very slightly over half that in Non-provided Schools, and he says that other figures in his possession all point to the same conclusion, namely, that,

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if religious teaching given in the schools is to be tested by its effective bearing on the life and conduct of its recipients, the Non-provided School system does not justify the high claims which have been made on its behalf. Sir Percival adds, quite fairly, that other considerations enter in, such as the respective environments of Council and Voluntary Schools and the quality of the homes of the children, but he insists, and we agree with him, that the figures are sufficient to put an end to the slurs passed on the education given in Council Schools. No good purpose is served by unfounded allegations. It rather behoves all concerned to unite in removing, as far as possible, the causes of delinquency.

The Burnham Deadlock.

THE official statement issued on the War Bonus discussions at the meeting of the special Burnham Sub-Committee show that the Teachers' Panel made every effort to reach agreement with the opposite side. Their first proposal was that there should be a bonus of 12½ per cent on the first £300 of the salaries of all teachers. This was rejected, and the Authorities' Panel made the counter-proposal that they should seek authority from their organizations to accept the Civil Service Scheme, under which no teacher earning more than £350 would benefit. The teachers could not agree to this, and made another proposal that there should be a percentage bonus embodying the principle of x per cent on the first £y of all salaries. The other panel being unwilling to contemplate the award of a percentage allowance to every teacher, the next suggestion was that the above proposal should be limited to salaries up to £550. This again was refused, the Authorities stating their inability to go beyond the Civil Service limit of £350, or to accept the percentage basis. The teachers then suggested an aggregate sum followed by consideration of its distribution, and made this more definite by proposing a flat rate bonus of £20 per annum on salaries up to £260, and of £15 per annum on salaries over £260 and up to £450, from an agreed date later than March 1. This was unacceptable, so nothing more could be done. One of the main points about the teachers' case is that the family man with a salary between £350 and £550 is suffering fully as much hardship as those receiving less. At the moment of writing the next step is not clear. We understand that the Civil Servants are appealing against the present limit, and the result of this appeal may improve the situation. But it must be remembered that while the Civil Servants will receive at any rate the present award if they lose their appeal, the teachers will get nothing unless they can reach agreement with the authorities. It may be found that some form of arbitration is the only way out of the impasse.

Evacuation Allowances.

THE 'Joint Four' have called attention to the ungenerous nature of the ruling of the Board of Education that the evacuation allowances in respect of continuing commitments at home must be discontinued as from the date when the house in the evacuation area becomes unfit for habitation by reason of war damage. It is pointed out that the commitments in respect of which the subsistence allowance is paid do not always cease when the house is destroyed, though they may be reduced. To rule that the subsistence allowance should be reviewed in such circumstances would have been reasonable; but to say that the allowance must "strictly cease as from the date when the house is rendered unfit for habitation by reason of war damage" is so extraordinarily unreasonable that the resentment it has aroused is not surprising. The reason given is "the fact that the risk of damage to property is common to all and is not affected by evacuation"; but the evacuated teacher might have been able to limit the damage done, by incendiary bombs for example, had he been on the spot, and he might have applied to the local authority to have his house made habitable, whereas in his absence the authority leaves his house over for later treatment. "The evacuated schoolmaster", continues the statement, "may be excused if he becomes a little ruffled when his local education authority asks him to communicate with the local authority's surveyor in order to obtain a certificate which will enable the local education authority to withhold the subsistence allowance". Teachers are a patient race, but at the moment there are far too many indications that advantage is being taken of their sense of patriotism and public duty.

How Not to Teach Literature.

A RECENT report* points out that a great educational advance would be made if all secondary school pupils could be made into competent and independent readers, who took pleasure in good books and yet knew when to skip, who realized they were themselves responsible for their intellectual progress, who knew how to use libraries and to look up relevant items of information. As a rule, says the Report, courses in literature do very little to train pupils in these desirable habits. "Good literature fails to be appreciated and enjoyed because of the analytical treatment that the best books receive in the class-room. . . . Teachers show ingenuity in torturing the subject studied by asking all kinds of questions which train the pupil in the most deliberate and minute dissection of what he has read. The result is that, whenever a pupil takes up a book, he begins to ramble in his thinking, indulging in all kinds of speculation as to the possible questions one might raise. Pupils begin to think that it requires from three to six months to read through a book. . . ." Our point from the beginning of the discussion in this *Journal* has been that the study of set books in schools is the best method yet discovered of creating a distaste for good literature, of forming undesirable habits of reading, of warping judgment and blunting sensibility, and of achieving effects precisely opposite to those contemplated by the authors of the books studied.

* **What the High Schools Ought to Teach.** Report of a Special Committee. American Council on Education. Washington D.C. 1940.

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A BRIEF but remarkable article appears in a recent number of *English* by Mr. F. B. Stead, entitled " English in the Science Sixth ". He mentions different ways in which this problem is dealt with, in one of which the boys concerned study the same books, though not so many of them, as those prescribed for boys specializing in English. Thus the science boy may find himself studying two plays of Shakespeare, and either three of the *Canterbury Tales* or two books of *Paradise Lost*. Mr. Stead is clearly of opinion that this is not the right kind of literary diet for boys whose main interest lies in a different direction, and that in fact the only thing in its favour is an obvious economy in staffing power. He illustrates his point by various alternative suggestions which seem to us excellent, and he concludes by expressing the hope that " whatever books are read will be read without any thought of an examination in view ". It did not fall within the scope of his article to say why the principles involved, one of which is that of fitting the syllabus to the boy instead of fitting the boy to the syllabus, should be applied only to the boy who happens to reach the Science Sixth. But he gives a pretty clear indication of his opinion. He admits that science in the sixth is a " side-line ", outside the chief preoccupations of the specialist teacher of English. But, he adds—may we not say rather slyly ?—" the exploration of a side-line may not be unfruitful. There is really no knowing what the result may be. It may even be found to have some bearing on the conduct of the main-line traffic ". We hope that other contributors to *English* may follow up the line of thought indicated by Mr. Stead.

English in the Science Sixth—and elsewhere.

THE question of set books is only part of a much larger question—the cramping influence of external examinations upon the individuality of teachers and pupils in our secondary schools. This influence is illustrated by the large number of schools which prefer tamely to accept the set books prescribed by external examiners, instead of adopting the possible alternative of choosing for themselves the books which are best suited to the conditions of their own schools. Mr. Fisher, in his *Unfinished Autobiography*, speaks of the school certificate examination as " this established incubus on the young ". In a recent issue we remarked on the adoption of record cards by a few education authorities in England —Kent, Wiltshire, Sheffield—and in Scotland. These experiments deserve the close attention of educationists. We believe that an external examination, supplemented by such record cards, would be a far better indication of the real abilities of students than an external examination alone. As Brother George Every* says : " The school certificate is itself the most effective symbol of the ills of the present situation. While all secondary education is dominated by the necessity of getting through that, and all university education is education of those who have got through, only a little can be done to stimulate in children and in youths the power to take decisions and to make judgements for themselves ". Surely these qualities are more valuable than the power of reproducing information in written replies to an examination lasting for an hour or two. The research work which has been done by Sir Philip Hartog and his colleagues into the value of examinations must have done something to shake our faith in their results. More thought and discussion on this subject are urgently needed.

External Examinations.

* **Christian Discrimination** (The Christian New-Letter Books, No. 8). (1s. 6d. net. The Sheldon Press.)

WITH income tax at its present figure it would be optimistic on the part of our universities to expect many personal benefactions. Cambridge is the recipient of a benefaction from the Institution of Civil Engineers of £1,000 per annum for five years, to foster among engineers the closer study of the economics of engineering subjects, the organization and management of engineering works and the relations of aesthetic considerations to engineering design and construction. This is a compliment to the Engineering Department. The public stands to benefit if aesthetic standards are raised in engineering work. The Institution of Civil Engineers has especially in mind the period of reconstruction and development following the present war. In addition to teaching the young engineer, research and study of these questions are to be encouraged. This evidence that university teaching of engineering appeals to the profession is gratifying, since the inclusion of the subject in the curriculum is comparatively recent and encountered some professional jealousy in the early days.

Engineering and Economics.

QUEEN ELIZABETH granted her Royal Charter to Trinity College, Dublin 350 years ago, and that famous University was founded with the co-operation of the City of Dublin. The *alumni* include some honoured names—Burke, Goldsmith, Swift, and Berkeley—and many distinguished scholars, especially classical and mathematical. James I, by granting representation in Parliament, recognized the status of the University, but the connexion with the British Parliament was severed under Home Rule. As long ago as 1842 a chair in civil engineering was established. Dublin in this and other respects has been an academic pioneer. Women were admitted to special examinations in 1870, and degrees were granted to Oxford and Cambridge women before their local enfranchisement. Degrees were also granted to students unable to attend regular courses—" trotters " was their popular name. In peace and war, Trinity College has placed the Empire under a great and lasting debt. Owing to the war, her seventh jubilee will be celebrated with maimed rites, but the occasion must not pass without record of our congratulations. Trinity College, Dublin can claim with St. Paul to have fought the good fight. May the College long continue to keep the academic faith.

Trinity College, Dublin.

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THE FUTURE OF THE BOARDING SCHOOL

(Paper read at the Annual Conference of Schoolmasters and College Tutors, Oxford, April 18, 1941, and published at the request of the Conference)

By Prof. F. CLARKE, Director of the University of London Institute of Education

THE title given to me as a topic for this paper is a little vague and slippery both in statement and in implication, so I must proceed at once to some attempt to clarify it. Very generously your chairman has accorded me full liberty to make what I can of it, and in accepting this freedom I trust I shall say nothing which could be construed as an abuse of such confidence.

The mere expression ' boarding school ' looks simple and straightforward enough. Actually, however, it is most uncomfortably akin to those ' bladder ' terms—like justice, freedom, democracy—upon the meaning of which all can agree so long as it is understood that every one keeps quiet about the particular concrete content with which, for his own part, he fills the empty vessel.

May I take it then that we are to discuss the boarding school mainly in the form it takes in England, a country in which it seems to have wider vogue and to carry greater prestige than in other countries ? May I assume also that we are to consider it in relation to a group of schools of a particular kind—shall we call them the ' independent ' schools ?

Within these limitations we may attempt a rough definition. Viewed *educationally*—that is apart from other possible characters—the boarding school is then :

> A school organized in the belief that effective education requires, in addition to systematic teaching, the discipline, stimuli, and opportunities that can be afforded by a free and diversified community-life, covering, so far as may be, every phase of the pupil's activities.

To this most of us would wish to add, no doubt, that the years from 13 to 19 are those during which such provision is both most effective and most desirable.

But *what* is it that we have defined thus roughly ? Is it a *principle*, something with a universal validity ? Or is it just a *custom*, a practical device of adaptation to special conditions ? In other words is the boarding school derived from the nature of education itself, so that its development in England has the character of a real discovery ? Or is it derived from mere accidents of circumstance, in which case it becomes no more than a convenient local practice ?

Much depends on the answer, but we will postpone the consideration of that for a moment in order to look a little more closely at some variations of form of boarding school. Here I shall have to include some examples taken from outside England since they serve to show that, however well justified this type of school may be in principle, it is certainly adaptable in form to a considerable variety of circumstance. Thus, in Southern Rhodesia it is an administrative convenience brought into play for reasons that are quite as much agrarian as educational. In order to have a school of organizable size the State system there concentrates education above the age of 10 or 11 in the towns, and pays to the rural parent a boarding-grant for his children such as will make his costs no greater than those incurred by a parent actually living in the town.

Elsewhere in South Africa similar administrative devices are found. Thus, in the Cape, children of ' poor whites ' are rescued from an isolated and possibly deleterious environment, and concentrated in boarding-houses in the country towns and large villages so that they may attend a fully organized school.

Such practices must not be taken as implying a belief in the ' boarding principle ' as such. They are rather administrative devices adopted partly to secure efficiency of teaching, and partly to retain a population on the land. Canada has the same problem of sparsely peopled areas, and the same anxiety to prevent the lure of better schools drawing rural families away from the land. But there the State makes little or no use of the boarding school even as a device.

Another use of this form of school is to secure disciplinary segregation as in Borstal institutions and ' Approved ' schools under the Home Office. Sometimes again they may exist, as is possibly the case with some girls' schools, as a response to nothing more than the promptings of a fashion. They may even be for some a device of parental convenience, a way of off-loading undesired responsibilities.

All I wish to indicate by these examples is that the mere existence of the boarding school in some form or other cannot be taken as evidence of belief in it as a matter of principle. There is, indeed, an extreme view that this kind of school is *remedial* rather than *fundamental*, witnessing by its presence not to soundness of educational principle but to some kind of social deficiency. Either, it would be argued, it provides for specially hard cases—' problem-pupils ' if you like—in the manner of an isolation hospital, or it is a substitute-device invented in order to achieve what the community at large ought to be doing, but because of some deficiency, is incapable of doing.

I could not myself subscribe to so extreme a view as this. But it is important to notice the element of truth in it, a matter to which we will return presently.

This hasty survey makes it possible now to offer a tentative suggestion by the developing of which we may come a little nearer to the truth of the matter.

The suggestion is this : the real determinant of the total educative process from which emerges the man or the woman is not the school but the whole society in its full historical reality. Education is above all else *the* distinctive function of community—its essential dynamic—and education is necessarily a community process. In simple primitive societies it can go on without requiring at all the evolution of the specialized community-organ that we call ' school '. This is employed, if at all, only on certain highly important occasions and then only in a very rudimentary form such as initiation ceremonies. Even at a much more advanced stage of development such as we find in ancient Greece, the specialized unit called ' school ' is required only for the acquisition of certain techniques. Education in the full sense is the business of the whole society.

In complex societies, such as ours, where, for example, the load of necessary technical knowledge to be carried by each citizen is particularly heavy, we find this specialized community-organ ' school ' in a much more advanced stage of evolution. As one form of it we have what we must now call the ' full-control ' school, the school which sets itself to cover every phase of the pupil's life and so is necessarily a boarding school. (Incidentally we may note that the type has a long history and was generated in forms of society very different from those of to-day. So it would be well to be prepared to meet the contention that the boarding school is quite as likely to be an atavistic survival as a late evolutionary form. The answer is to be found, of course, by a direct test in terms of present relevancy and significance.)

We have seen that the type may occur in the modern world from a variety of reasons. So we must distinguish, and distinguish sharply, between the kinds of reason. These are :

(i) Accidental circumstance.

(ii) Educational principle. We do find, I think, while keeping strictly to the line of thought I am trying to follow,

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—that of the progressive specialization by society of community-organs for education—that a true and distinctive educational function can be assigned to the boarding school as such. In other words, what I shall now prefer to call the ' full-control ' type of school is more than a local or administrative accident. It has a value and significance of its own among the educating organs that a vital and fruitful society can produce.

What *is* this ? I can put it this way. Every good school, limited as it necessarily is by the actualities of the society that produces it and whose needs it serves, is something more than a reproductive agent. It performs its duty not merely in guaranteeing the continuity of a society and a culture, but also in subjecting to a critical and refining process the cultural material which is its medium. It is indeed a *refinery*, not merely a duplicating-plant. Kant laid down this principle long ago, and its recognition is much more vital to the health and maintenance of a democratic order than is generally realized.

Is not this peculiarly difficult and even dangerous function of the school almost cruelly important and necessary to-day ? Was there ever an order of life, a social condition, a surrounding medium of culture which so much needs the refining process as does this of our own time in its impact on the young ? If this means that school-mastering is to become a dangerous trade we can welcome the fact and say with all our hearts : " So it ought to be."

You will see now where I find a distinctive and highly important function for what I have called the ' full-control ' school, provided always that it is organized and carried on as such with full educational intent and is not just an accident of circumstance.

A school that can establish control over the lives of its pupils as completely and effectively as may be, if it operates in favourable circumstances and is wisely directed, may discharge the important function that we will call *intensification*. That is, it can carry the refining process to a higher point of intensity while, at the same time, bringing a wider range of the pupil's thought and activity under its influence. I should imagine that the good boarding school which knows its job will be peculiarly alive to this duty in a time like the present, when so much that is dubious, even false and spurious, in the surrounding world needs its purifying touch.

But we must guard against misconceptions. There have been times in history when the full-control type of school was a beleaguered fortress of culture in an alien and hostile world. We should be misjudging both ourselves and our age if we thought that this was such a time. If the school, as I suggest, is rather a refinery, then its supply of the unrefined material must come into it with some freedom. At both ends, as it were, intake and output, it must be in living contact with the whole life of the society whose needs it serves.

Critics of the English public school are ready to charge it with at least three weaknesses on this head. They say, first, that it is in contact, organically and directly, only with a part of its related society ; with the rest only indirectly, and as some say, rather ignorantly and blindly. Secondly, that, while it handles firmly and with some success many of the impurities of the common life which it refines, it allows others, equally deleterious, to operate freely, either because it does not notice them or because a firm handling of them would be prejudicial to the solid interests of its peculiar social position. Thirdly, that its pupils suffer from a certain *under-exposure*, school regimen and the good fortune of social position interposing, it is claimed, a comfortable protective screen between boys and the harsher, less pleasant things of this world. Some critics will add that the weakness is made worse when a school is under the illusion that exposure is more real and direct than it actually is.

I am not concerned here to assess the justice of these criticisms. My object at the moment is only to insist that there must *be* what I call ' exposure ' as between school and world, and that the nature of it makes a deal of difference. This implies, of course, that a school which is doing its job will be working with a thought-out social philosophy relevant to its needs.

In view of what follows a little later I should like to mention that there is another aspect of these conceptions of ' refining ' and ' exposure ' which is likely to become increasingly important in the years that lie ahead. But I can discuss it more appropriately after raising the question of the future of the boarding school (or ' full-control ' school). All these preliminaries have been necessary in order that that central question might be raised in what I hope will prove a helpful perspective. To that question we will now turn.

It will make for clarity if we discuss it in two quite distinct forms. First we will consider it in relation to the particular kind of English school in which this audience is interested, and then more widely in relation to the working of what I have called the ' full-control ' technique in the future. This second case involves the possibility of much wider application of the ' full-control ' idea in ways that do not necessarily demand the boarding school.

To take then the first case. I know well that the expressions ' public school ' and ' boarding school ' cannot be precisely equated. But it will be agreed, I think, that if there were no boarding schools there would be no public schools as we know them. Hence it will be substantially correct in this connexion to take the future of the boarding school as involving the future of the other. If that is accepted I can now state the conviction which, in my view, governs the whole prospect. It is quite simply this : that the public schools will save themselves by playing their part —a great part—in the saving of England. There is a pre-eminence awaiting them in shaping the destiny of this country rather different from and much greater than that which they have enjoyed in the past. It is impossible here to expound this thesis in detail. I can do no more than indicate, amid so much that is unpredictable, two great national services in which the schools are called upon to play a major part.

The first is one which may need some little explanation. It involves the adjustment and development of tradition in the interest of preserving the tradition itself. I am convinced that in the future, both in our education and in other fields of national policy, we shall have to make much more use of clear-cut *rational criteria* than we have done in the past. We cannot escape the necessity, I am sure. Hence much will depend on the manner in which such criteria are formulated and especially upon the source from which they are derived. Is not that source precisely the tradition itself if, on the one hand, we are to preserve continuity in strange and novel circumstances, and on the other hand to adapt the tradition itself to new and wider fields ?

The task of rationalization will not be wholly congenial, running, as it does, somewhat against the historical grain. Moreover it will involve some purging of excrescences and provincialisms, and it will be hard to let these go even when we recognize them as the non-essentials they are. But rational criteria of a relevant and applicable kind we must have—a clear philosophy or ' theory ' of education, if you like—and I am convinced we can get all we need by examination and restatement of the tradition itself.

Will you allow me here a personal word in order to let me say that I know this is so since I have seen it happen ? Some part of my working life has been spent amid education in two widely differing Dominions. In both, what do you find if not the English tradition *re-edited* as it were ? The emphasis on the various parts is distributed somewhat differently from what you find in England : some elements of it have reached their present home and form by devious routes (thus features that are called Scottish often turn out to be Puritan English), and the social implications of the tradition will be found to have undergone considerable

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transformation. But my point is that it is essentially the old thing having undergone, as it were, translation into a changed idiom. Administratively, the educational system of Australia is as *French* in its thorough-going centralization as anything can be. But see it actually at work in the schools and you will forget the administrative accent in your ready recognition of the familiar educational language.

You will forgive, I know, the introduction of this personal touch if it serves to illuminate and confirm the view that out of the tradition itself we can extract all the rational criteria we shall need.

That we shall need them badly is already abundantly clear. Have we yet grasped, for instance, what will be the burden of success in a conflict such as that in which this country is now engaged, fought under conditions which make this land the focal point of the world? It is not merely that we may find ourselves with more prestige than we are able to carry. We cannot escape, even if we would and however humbly we take it up, the burden that will be laid upon us of reordering and re-educating over large areas of the world. This we can hardly undertake except in the light of our own principles. Those principles we shall have to grasp both firmly and flexibly, for we have not only to make ourselves aware of their true nature and of the obligations they impose upon us, but also to apply them to a wide diversity of circumstance. So there faces us a double task, of clear formulation and of diversified *translation* into many different idioms, a task for which I cannot feel that we are yet quite ready. Nor shall we find it wholly congenial, for I have noticed that the call for explicit self-awareness always causes some embarrassment to English people who, with some reason no doubt, suspect formulated creeds. But we must meet the demand. It would be tragic if, in face of such a call, we merely generalized uncritically our local and insular forms and customs, and treated the rest of the world as though, if it were not English, then it just ought to be.

Moreover, looking now to internal possibilities in our own country, is there not some risk of a clash between a rigid and uncritical traditionalism and the doctrinaire blue-prints of some form of planned Utopia? We must not make the bad mistake of saying that such Utopianism, the expression of the rationalistic, unhistorical type of mind, is un-English. In varying degrees of intensity it has always been with us, and occasionally, as in the seventeenth century, it has had its moments of triumph. The mischief it could do to English education, if it got control and ran wild, is incalculable.

Nevertheless, something of its temper will be needed now, and the problem before us is to effect a harmony between it and the dominant tradition itself, to square rationality with continuity. The way to achieve that, I am convinced, is to apply rational criticism to the tradition itself, to make it fully conscious of itself and its present world, purging it of impurities and irrelevancies and restating its values and principles in a form that would endow them with fresh relevance and fruitfulness.

For a task demanding such resources in the way of courage and intellectual adventure I see no institution so well-placed as the public school. If it can brace itself to give the necessary lead I have no doubt of the strength and solidity of the response that would be evoked.

The second of the two great services that the public school is in a position to perform is vast out of all proportion to the brief reference I can give to it. It is nothing less than the closing of the division in this nation which has been allowed to open up during the last century or so. You can help to close it as no one else can, for to try to maintain it now must bring disaster. I confess I stand amazed at attempts which are sometimes made to deny its existence. The six years I have spent in work in English education since returning to this country have served to convince me that the poison of social division is not only there but that it has also been spreading into fresh fields of English life and education. Suppressed during national crisis it may redouble its virulence when the crisis is past. The elimination of it will present a host of practical difficulties, but I suspect that this will be made easier *in principle* as a result of changes in social temper and outlook which the crisis itself is inducing.

So much for the specific tasks of the boarding school in the historic form it takes in the English public school.

Let us turn now to the other aspect of the matter. It concerns, you will remember, the possibility of applying the technique of what I have called 'full-control' in a much wider way, in fact to society at large.

To those who are alive to what has been happening in this country during the last forty years this is no Utopian fancy. In our characteristic intuitive and inarticulate way we seem to have been experimenting in this very thing. Out of the effort to give to the rank and file of the people not a bare modicum of elementary instruction but a real education there has emerged a striking development in the range of social control that we now attempt in the interests of the good life. By legislation, by administration, by spontaneous voluntary action of groups and individuals, in fact in all the characteristic ways, we have striven to take a firmer grip not only of the school but also of all the environing conditions which, for good or ill, may have educative effect. The arm of the Community as Tutor now reaches out far beyond the school. Millions of children are now infinitely better fed, clothed, and housed than their predecessors were forty years ago. Health conditions have been transformed, and many an elementary school child enjoys better medical care than his fellows in the preparatory school. We are now contemplating the extension of beneficent educative control, whether in school or not, to 18 or 20, and are beginning to understand that such matters as housing, wage-policy, and town-planning are in one important aspect educational matters.

At the same time we are learning that school is only one of many agents in a truly healthy society, and we are concerned not only to co-ordinate its action more effectively with that of its collaborators but also to ask ourselves a crucially important question: whether, because of social deficiency in the past, we have not been charging the school with functions that do not properly belong to it. Perhaps my audience may be able to point to some of these misplaced functions.

Here, then, the ancient vision of a unified society, educative in all its parts, comes once more into view. When we become more fully aware of what we are actually doing, shall we check ourselves in apprehension and horror, or shall we go on with redoubled energy and enlarged vision? Can there be any doubt of the answer? We may suffer disappointment in the end, but we shall go on until that happens.

But, suppose we achieve a large measure of success, what then? I suggest that the school will become more specialized to its *teaching* function, the full responsibility for education being more widely diffused throughout society by means of organs that work in close co-operation with the school. We shall evolve a new kind of Ministry of Education giving full expression at the centre to rich conceptions of the necessities of education that have long been taking shape in many of the local areas.

Out of all this the day school emerges in a new setting as an agency discharging specific allotted functions as part of a much wider educating whole, the nature and working of which are fully understood and which is controlled *as* a whole. The educator, if not the philosopher, has become king, and the principle of full-control is operating now not in terms of a particular type of school, the boarding school, but over the whole social range.

Is this a fanciful picture? I do not think so, for the lure of it is working strongly among us even now. Nay more, has not the boarding school itself always presupposed the backing of a highly determinate kind of society as its medium and co-operator? Has it, indeed, any meaning apart from

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such a presupposition, not covering the whole of English society no doubt, but still a very clearly-defined and highly characteristic thing? Thus its own full control within its little kingdom has never been the complete and exclusive thing it has sometimes been taken to be, or school governors would have been much more a sheer educational superfluity than, I understand, is actually the case.

So the boarding school is not, after all, an exception to this technique of a wider form of 'full-control' that I have been trying to illustrate. What then will be its position if this thrust towards an educative society such as I have described should continue and should achieve a great measure of success? Would not the boarding school then become superfluous?

It would be rash to assume this. Some very valuable and perhaps indispensable functions still remain. There will always be a case for the segregated-community form of the school for the handling of special and difficult individuals. It is no accident that we have already adopted the technique for such types. The case is strong, too, for certain types of professional training, especially of the armed forces, and it is arguable that all teachers might be better equipped if, in their training, they had had this kind of educational experience.

These may be regarded, however as special cases. Would there still be justification for that more specialized form of the boarding school with which we are familiar, when society as a whole has become more designedly educative? Again I should say 'Yes'. The justifying of this answer would lead to what I should be willing to regard as the culmination of my argument about the future of the public school. Suppose that we do succeed in healing the division in this nation, and that the public school plays a leading part in the effort. Suppose, further, that we escape the dangers of a rigid bureaucracy, and unify our educational life in a way that still further enhances vitality and diversity. Can you not see the boarding school in its public-school form still figuring prominently in that picture, carrying high prestige by reason of its complete representativeness, the thoroughness of its work, and the breadth of its educational conceptions? Freed from the suspicion of irrelevant privilege and a merely partial identification with the nation, taking its good in staff and pupils and ideas wherever this can be found, and expressing in its many-sided life the whole range of *καλὸς κ'ἀγαθός* as the nation conceives it, is it not more than ever the bearer of that function of *intensification* to which I have referred? Not 'leadership', whatever that may mean, (personally I should like to drop altogether that much-abused and, in some ways, thoroughly hateful word), but just *intensification*, the heightening and concentration of the whole dynamic idea of a whole nation's life.

Much has to happen before such a vision could become actual, especially in the matter of changed social attitudes and habits. Also steps would have to be taken which at the time would wear the colours of sacrifice. But surely the real question that the public school has to answer now is that of the ultimate object of its loyalty. "Choose ye this day whom ye will serve." There is no need to elaborate the challenge. Nor, when its full import is grasped, will there be much need to fear that it will not evoke the right response.

YOUTH SERVICE

By LESLIE R. MISSEN, M.C., M.A., Secretary to the East Suffolk Education Committee

YOUNG people between the ages of 14 and 20, where they have the opportunity, are to-day making an impressive response to national and local calls for service in their spare time. Members of the established voluntary organizations with their training and experience have made a considerable contribution from the very beginning of the war, a contribution which has often received official and public recognition. But it is well known that, until recently, some two-thirds of the total number between 14 and 20 years of age did not belong to any organization—the President of the Board of Education, speaking at Loughborough on April 16, 1941, said he thought the number was nearer 70 per cent. Many of them had no opportunity to occupy their leisure time usefully, either for themselves or for their country. Voluntary and statutory bodies all over the country gave the closest consideration to this problem before the war and it received special attention in Prof. Morgan's Report to King George's Jubilee Trust—*The Needs of Youth*—published in 1939. More recently it has been, or should have been, the subject uppermost in the minds of County and Borough Youth Committees established as a result of Board of Education Circular 1486—*The Service of Youth*. These committees have to consider how, first, to help and strengthen the existing organizations so as to enable them to increase their membership and their effectiveness; and second, to find a solution to the problem of the two-thirds unattached. The result has been that in many parts of the country original and interesting experiments are now being made, and thousands of young people who would not otherwise have had the opportunity to serve, are happily and effectively making their contribution towards winning the war and helping their neighbours.

In making surveys of their areas, all committees have found common difficulties in work for youth. The biggest difficulties are lack of suitable trained leaders, lack of suitable premises, and shortage of money. In rural areas and in some newly developed urban areas, there are further complications of distance and travelling, and in the rural area there is also the problem of the small village. Attempts have been made to solve these difficulties.

The training of leaders has rested for some time past with the voluntary organizations and the education authorities. A responsible body of persons who recently made a survey found that the voluntary organizations are producing each year not more than 140 professional workers who have had any substantial period of training. This varies from six months to over two years, and in one instance involves a social science diploma course. The age of entry to voluntary organization courses of training is generally speaking from 20 to 25. Men and women trained by the voluntary organizations usually enter the service of these bodies and are paid salaries comparable with the lower levels of the scales for teachers, but seldom with any provision for increments or pensions. In part-time and unpaid work the Boy Scouts at Gilwell Park, and the Girl Guides at Foxlease, conduct short courses for various grades of officers, for whom there is a preparatory correspondence course. Trained officers in turn conduct other short courses in the provinces, and in this way the Boy Scouts, for instance, have been able to train several hundreds of officers a year, mostly young men already engaged in the work. Other voluntary organizations also conduct short courses for their part-time workers.

The other bodies active in training leaders are the Board of Education and the local education authorities; and, working with them, the training colleges, and the Central Council of Social and Recreative Physical Training. A large number of teachers have always taken their part as leaders in voluntary organizations out of school hours, especially in scouting, guiding, brigade and club work. Those in technical colleges and the evening institutes of local education authorities, particularly, make a formidable contribution to the work for youth. The full-time trained teachers, and that large body of part-time untrained teachers who bring a wide variety of experience gained in many different walks of life, to the part-time instruction of youth in technical, commercial, art, and other subjects, help in all kinds of ways with

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leisure-time activities. University training departments and training colleges are increasingly alive to the part which their students have to play in fashioning the life of the country and much more social work, both theoretical and practical, is included in their courses. Now that the Government has foreshadowed the raising of the school-leaving age to 15, with part-time education up to 18, to come into effect when the war is over, there must be a reconsideration of the training of teachers for older children and adolescents, and it is understood that the appropriate bodies are already at work on the problem. Apart from full-time teacher training, a great deal is done in short-time holiday courses for both voluntary workers and teachers, courses which are arranged by the Board of Education and the training colleges, to attend which students are selected and aided by education committees. Many of these courses have been arranged in physical training, but others have covered all kinds of adolescent activities. More committees are themselves arranging courses for those living within their areas and are also aiding—in many cases handsomely—with fees and maintenance those who attend outside courses. But, when the results of all this work are reviewed it is obvious that much more needs to be done, particularly in preparation for part-time compulsory continued education. The problem of the adolescent must surely be regarded as a whole, and workers, both voluntary and paid, must be found and trained who share common ideals and purposes so that interests and skills which the boys and girls acquire may be enjoyed and practised widely. This implies that the men and women concerned must have shared much in their training, and must feel themselves to be part of a unified whole, however diverse their interests may be.

The lack of buildings, and the use of unsuitable buildings, have both proved to be serious stumbling-blocks to youth work carried on by voluntary organizations and education committees; towards the solution of this difficulty many local education authorities are now making a useful contribution by letting suitable buildings more freely to any recognized bodies dealing with adolescents. But private bodies owning suitable halls and rooms might, in many places, be more reasonable about rentals and conditions of use. The experience of voluntary organizations and education committees proves conclusively that, unless a building is designed with an eye to youth work or leisure time activity, it will not be satisfactory. Even when it is, it must still be suitably furnished and equipped. Many more buildings designed for the purpose and erected by local authorities with the legal power to do so are needed. They could be let to the bodies wishing to use them. Great changes in building are expected when the war is over, based on the experimental work of the last fifteen years in technical colleges, community centres, institutes of leisure, the Peckham Health Centre, and, above all, the village colleges of Cambridgeshire and the spacious new senior schools of many local education authorities. Henry Morris and others have shown that schools, planned for the purpose and rightly constructed, can be made centres of cultural, social, and recreational activity, for the whole community in town or country. The introduction of part-time continued education will mean in the countryside that many more villages will establish a claim by numbers and uses to a building suitable for a village centre. Alterations will be necessary to many existing junior schools to make them suitable for adolescent and adult activity, and the difficulty of non-provided school buildings should not prove insuperable. Much can be done by this means to restore the communal village life, and so make it independent of the towns.

Though much more needs to be done in providing playing-fields, most local education authorities, who are the biggest owners, do all they can to provide pitches for adolescents in all organizations. Comprehensive schemes in town and in country with full ground staff, tractor cutters, and so on, prove better on costs alone than to maintain separately a number of privately owned fields. In this way and in many other ways local education authorities are now helping, whilst grants for equipment, camping rentals, and apparatus have also been made available by them.

The second part of the problem facing Youth Committees—the 60 to 70 per cent unattached—is by far the more difficult. Voluntary organizations are being helped by the Board of Education and locally by education and youth committees to carry on their work more effectively, to increase their membership, and to extend their activities (the President of the Board of Education, 29/4/41). But, even if these organizations between them provided all the outlets required by youth to-day, in the opinion of many youth committees it would still be some time before they attracted any appreciable number of the unattached. The suggestion that existing organizations might never in the best of circumstances attract the whole of youth to membership has led some people to belittle new experiments. Their attitude is summed up in a letter to *The Times* dated April 1, 1941, from Sir Edward Cadogan, in which—after stressing the heroic effort demanded of those whose business it is to keep the initial enthusiasm for a new movement alive over a long period of years—he goes on to say: "That measure of success has been due to the fact that those responsible for the management of the organizations have been men and women with unrivalled experience of youth and its requirements. Where they have failed, if in any respect they have failed, no one else is likely to succeed." It is probable that something like that was said to the late Lord Baden-Powell when he founded in 1908 a new movement twenty-five years junior to the oldest of the then existing youth movements. Baden-Powell was certainly not discouraged by it, and Sir Edward Cadogan's assertion is reminiscent of what was also said about the Young Farmers' Clubs when they first appeared in this country between 1928 and 1932. Fortunately their founders also were not discouraged. These clubs, of which the number increases yearly (there are now over 500 of them), are organizations built upon the occupations and opportunities of the rural areas, with strong social and recreational sides. They combine technical instruction and practical experience with club activity in a very happy and successful way, and develop responsibility in their young members, most of whom are between 14 and 21 years of age. They are not so dependent on adult leadership as some organizations and much of the responsibility is taken by young members who hold executive office. Adult advice is available when required in an advisory committee of farmers, who usually guarantee the loans necessary from time to time in stocking the club. The club is a fine school of citizenship for all its members and of training for those who are to lead in the community in later years.

In their endeavours to meet the needs of the unattached many education committees have themselves started, or are helping others to start, boys' and girls' clubs. Some of these clubs have been severely criticized, but it is apparent that they must be run differently in different places according to conditions and circumstances brought about by the war. Generally, however, the club most criticized is the 'in-out' club which provides nothing but amusement. All club and organization leaders of experience are agreed that such a club can have very little effect unless it is justified by special conditions and first-class leadership. Then it is likely that out of amusement may come demands for creative activities of real value, and the club will develop so that ultimately no one without a knowledge of its history could guess at its origin.

Too little is known of the excellent results achieved in technical colleges and evening institutes all over the country—work which is being rapidly extended and diversified. Most people unfortunately have the idea that the work of these colleges and institutes is purely practical and intended to improve the industrial or commercial skill of the students. But all of them, and particularly the evening institutes, provide endless sources of activity for

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leisure time. It is not possible in the space of this review to do justice to the contribution which these institutions are making, varying as they do from the great colleges of the industrial centres, with thousands of students and a well-developed social and recreational life, to village colleges and area institutes also with many-sided activities.

The most significant development in youth work since the war began is the Youth Service Squad originating in East Suffolk and now flourishing in many other areas. In May, 1940, a number of boys and girls between 14 and 20 years of age banded themselves together in the East Suffolk village of Copdock to help in the national effort to win the war. They appointed one of their number as leader and undertook first of all the collection of the village salvage. They then looked further afield, discovered other work which needed to be done, and did it very effectively. When news of this squad's work came to the East Suffolk Youth Committee, they decided to tell all the other villages in the county and to invite youngsters to form similar squads. The response to a poster which the youth committee issued in the following July was immediate, and over eighty squads were registered at once as part of the County Youth Service. At the end of April, 1941, there were nearly 200 squads with a total membership of 1,600. Of this number 80 per cent had never previously belonged to any organization at all. That means that the 60 per cent unattached in East Suffolk have so far been reduced by 1,280, or over one-fifth, and the total of unattached is now reduced to below 50 per cent. Numbers are steadily increasing and new squads are forming, so that these figures may ultimately show a still further decrease in the number of unattached. The programme of the squads is threefold. First comes service of national and local importance; the list of jobs is impressive and includes ninety different kinds of work, most of which needs to be done in peace-time too. In addition, there is a list of twenty kinds regarded as peace-time work only. Secondly, there is the educational side. A large number of squad members have joined as individuals, or as squads, their nearest evening institutes or classes, and, where this was not possible, teachers of subjects such as crafts, drama, country dancing, have been sent to squads in their own quarters. Thirdly, the recreational and social side, including play production, concerts, dancing, games, and physical training, has developed so that many villages have been entertained and enlivened, and much has been done for troops quartered nearby throughout the winter, while new games' leagues have been formed and many informal visits and matches have taken place between squads. Most squads lead a very busy life indeed and it is not uncommon for them to meet four and five nights a week.

The aim of the East Suffolk Youth Service has been defined by the youth committee as the encouragement of the spirit of good citizenship. If, they say, youth service is to attain real success, it must recognize fully the spiritual background of true living and service for others. Those who join should realize that the call for service to which they have responded is a high and spiritual thing, religious in the truest sense of the word. Their own religious life may embrace allegiance to some branch of the Christian Church or reverence for some body of belief or teaching, but the service cannot require less of its loyal members than that they should fulfil conscientiously the duties and obligations of their own religious outlook. The committee feel that this ideal must always be in the forefront of the requirements for good citizenship which are put before youth.

The organization of this youth service is simple and elastic. Each squad elects its own leader and secretary; a badge is worn by each qualified member of a squad; there are no subscriptions, and no expenses other than those which a squad chooses to incur itself; no grants are made to squads by the youth committee except for apparatus or rentals, and generally only when squads raise 75 per cent of the cost themselves. Teachers or instructors are, however, sent free when required and when numbers justify it. Monthly reports on progress and a six-monthly statement of accounts are required to be sent to the youth committee, and the contact between squad and committee is by post, by personal visit from the chairman or organizer, and by regular conferences of squad leaders and members called at selected points in the county.

It is early yet to assess the value of this youth service, not yet one year old, but an examination of some of the reasons for its progress may be useful. First, it started spontaneously in an East Suffolk village, and no squads are formed except on the demand of youth themselves. A critic in a letter to *The Times* dated March 18 stated that the squads were "curiously reminiscent of the activities of the Nazi régime and not sponsored by a spontaneous demand of the people, but by a Government department". Nothing could be further from the truth. The idea had spread to many other areas long before the Board of Education called attention to it in Circular 1543. Secondly, squads are genuinely self-governed, choosing their own leaders and secretaries, and changing them (as they have done) if they prove incapable of their tasks. Thirdly, the programme of each squad is based on a search for *real* needs in the area in which the members live and then on the selection of those tasks that can best be performed. Adult advice is always available but never intrusive. A large volume of correspondence passes between squad leaders and the youth committee. The quality of the reports submitted has been surprisingly good and shows that youth is quite capable of lucid and pithy expression when the subject and the circumstances are real. The success of the work so far must be attributed mainly to the personalities of the young leaders themselves and to the very impressive qualities of leadership which they have shown. One-third of the squads are all boys and one-third are all girls, with boy and girl leaders respectively. The remainder are mixed squads with slightly more girl leaders than boy leaders. The total membership is roughly 46 per cent boys and 54 per cent girls. Membership would be roughly fifty-fifty boys and girls, but for the fact that the boys of 19 and 20 are engaged in Army training and the Home Guard. The President of the Board of Education, in his broadcast of April 29, stated succinctly his reasons for the success of squad work. Speaking of the unattached he said: "If membership of one of the great voluntary associations does not appeal to them, well let them combine in some other way. The need is to get them together and to help them to run their own show. Thus shall we give them the opportunity to realize in practice what so often remains only a theory, that the most satisfying and the most comforting experience is not their own individual pleasure and entertainment, but concerted effort one with another in the service of their fellow-citizens and their country. The desire to serve is the very stuff and essence of democratic citizenship. We must give it every scope, every opportunity, and every encouragement."

The Youth Service of East Suffolk has been adapted to the needs and conditions of many other areas, particularly rural areas. Squads provide the small villages with a workable and self-contained organization which it has hitherto been difficult to establish in them. Experiments are being conducted elsewhere with Civil Defence Cadets, Youth Emergency Corps, Service Clubs, and so on. These new ventures will be watched with the greatest interest as excursions into the wide field of unattached youth, and it is to be hoped will be the forerunners of a wider choice of activities and of the vigorous and developed youth service which is to be an important part of our national life after the war.

"If you're planning for one year plant grain; if you're planning for ten years plant trees; if you're planning for a hundred years plant men."

Old Chinese Proverb.

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YOUTH EDUCATION—AIMS AND VALUES

By C. BIRCHENOUGH, Chief Inspector of Education, Kent Education Committee

"SINCE custom is the principal magistrate of man's life, let man by all means endeavour to obtain good customs", remembering that, "if the force of custom simple and separate be great, the force of custom copulate and conjoined and collegiate is far greater." These words of Bacon express the working faith of that great body of men and women who regard the education of youth as essential, not only for personal well-being but also for the very life of the community. While they feel vaguely that "virtue is not only a matter of habit but also a matter of knowledge", they are greatly perplexed to know how best to further the task they have so much at heart. Youth they feel is

"The heir of hopes too fair to turn out false",

and what they need is not only information about ways and means—methods, organization, and services, but above all a clearer view of aims and ends. They feel that Wordsworth was looking at only one aspect of the problem when he taught that:

"Youth should be awed, religiously possessed
With a conviction of the power that waits
On knowledge, when sincerely sought and prized
For its own sake."

However true this may be of a minority of boys and girls, it takes no note of those who are what is commonly called 'education shy'. Certainly it hardly seems to fit the case of that great host of young people between the ages of 14–18–21 who pass through life with little or no connexion with any agency for continued education and self-improvement. These represent anything from two-thirds to three-quarters of the whole youth population. In the ordinary community of 50,000, over 1,000 boys and 1,000 girls between 14 and 18, or nearly 2,000 between 14 and 21 years of age, are outside the pale of any form of organized education.

It is evident from the most cursory consideration that a problem of this magnitude cannot be dealt with solely by voluntary means, however admirable. Neither the accommodation nor the personnel is available. It can be dealt with only by enlisting the fullest resources of the local education authorities. For the last twenty years, ever since reorganization was taken in hand, the policy of the Kent Education Committee and not a few other authorities has been to encourage the heads and staffs of central schools to look at education from 11 to 18 as a whole, even though they were primarily concerned with the ages 11 to 14 or 15. Schools have accordingly been led to establish Old Students' Associations for continuing the education of pupils after school days are over. Their aim has been to become, in the best sense of the term, community centres. Various forms of recreative activities have been devised, often conducted on club or semi-club lines, and pupils have been encouraged to enter the regular courses of Further Education. All Further Education institutes have similarly been encouraged to develop a social and recreative side. Agencies of this sort account for by far the greater number of those who continue their education after they have left the full-time day school.

A proportion of boys and girls prefer to join voluntary agencies, clubs and societies of various kinds, boys' clubs, scouts, lads' brigades, girls' friendly societies, guides, young men's or women's Christian associations, leagues of youth, and the like. It is well that it should be so, for undue rigidity is always to be deplored.

The vast majority of young people, however, come under no recognizable educational influence at all apart from those incidental to the daily work, the home, and the street. It is frequently forgotten that only some 10 per cent of boys and girls continue their full-time education to 16 years of age in secondary schools or full-time schools of Further Education. The problem to be solved is how best to deal with some 60 per cent of young wage-earners who are prone to resist whatever educational inducements are offered.

The question is no new one. War, with the inevitable decline in parental control and upheavals of employment, fosters the growth of problems of conduct which obtrude themselves on public notice; juvenile delinquency tends to increase. At the same time the consciences of men and women in regard to their social responsibilities become more sensitive. This happened during the last war and led to the establishment of juvenile organization committees to deal with youth problems. Much the same has happened again. This time a youth movement has arisen, and money has been set aside for the development of remedial work in this direction. It is worth noting that provision to deal with these problems was made in the Education Act of 1918, but the relevant clauses did not become operative. The Geddes' Economy Committee, the protests of employers, and the unwillingness of the public to spend the necessary money made action impossible. Now, when problems of accommodation and personnel are more than ever difficult, the work has to be taken in hand.

Nor is this all. Perhaps because of the very urgency of the task, the appeal is directed primarily to the resources of voluntaryism with a view to extending to the utmost the vital and heartening youth work which depends for its success on the devoted, self-sacrificing service of countless numbers of men and women. Not that any number of clubs and community centres could meet the need, but an attack on these lines has considerable attractions especially in war-time. Stress has accordingly been laid on increasing the numbers of well-disposed lay workers, club-leaders, and others, notwithstanding the competing claims of war service and civil defence, and on extending the scope of voluntary organizations to the neglect oftentime of other youth agencies. To such an extent is this the case that doubt is being cast on the value of the professional teacher for youth work and on the wisdom of enlisting his services at all. In not a few quarters the last word to mention is 'education'. Terms like 'organization', 'instruction', and 'study' are anathema. A new class of youth organizers has arisen, and shibboleths like self-government, the club atmosphere, recreational activities, service squads, and badge schemes are the order of the day, as if these alone could provide a solution to this, the most difficult of educational problems.

What a criticism of teachers and schooling this is! It is probably true to say that at no period have teachers as a body, especially those in central and technical schools, shown a greater understanding of youth problems than during the last twenty years. Some of their best work has been done without costing the community a penny. The fact is that much of the best extra-school work which is being done has passed altogether unnoticed by the public. Yet it is on this work that we must build. In it is the hope of the future. Granted freedom, the need can be trusted to evoke appropriate means. No better illustration of this is needed than the men's junior institutes in London.

Why is it that education must represent at least 90 per cent of any youth work? The answer is that education is concerned with the growth of the human spirit. Its aim is the fullest development of all the forces and faculties of man, helping him to become all that he might become.

If we are asked to justify this concern for education we can do it on various grounds. If we take our stand on Christian grounds, we maintain the cause of education because every individual is "a child of God". This point of view was strongly represented by Archbishop Cranmer

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in 1541 to the Commissioners concerned with formulating the conditions of entry to King's School, Canterbury. "Utterly to exclude the ploughman's son and the poor man's son from the benefits of learning . . . is as much to say, as that Almighty God should not be at liberty to bestow His great gifts of grace upon any person . . . but as we and other men shall appoint them to be employed, according to our fancy and not according to His most Godly will and pleasure who giveth His gifts . . . unto all kinds and states of people indifferently."

Man's end is to seek the good, to glorify God. It is our duty and our privilege to serve as humble workers in the Master's service. In the natural world if we share our goods we have less for ourselves. In the things of the spirit there is no such deprivation. As we share with others the spiritual capital of the world increases; our purposes gain in clearness and in steadfastness; our understanding, our insight, our sympathies are enlarged. Our spiritual stature grows, our personality is the richer. As we strive to help others we help ourselves.

We may, on the other hand, seek to maintain the cause of education on the ground that a democratic society such as we believe in presupposes an educated democracy. This is true, for the will of a democratic society is the will of the individual members that compose it. The purpose is to secure the best possible life for its members, to make of human nature all that it is in it to become. That state is most secure in the wills and affections of its citizens which seeks to the utmost the good of its individual members for their own sakes and not for any ulterior motive. The State cannot stand still. Like the individual it must go forward or backward. It may die of inanition.

> Progress is
> The law of life; man is not Man as yet.
> Nor shall I deem his object served, his end
> Attained, his genuine strength put fairly forth,
> While every here and there a star dispels
> The darkness, here and there a towering mind
> O'erlooks its prostrate fellows: when the host
> Is out at once to the despair of night,
> When all mankind alike is perfected,
> Equal in full-blown powers—then, not till then,
> I say, begins man's general infancy."
> (Browning—*Paracelsus*.)

Thus we reach much the same end, whether we seek to justify education from the Christian or from the social standpoint. The reason for this should provide food for reflection.

There is, however, a third ground on which the claim of education may be based. For good or ill we are an industrial community, a community which is becoming more and more industrialized. Industrialization proceeded apace as a result of the last war. This pace will be greatly accelerated as a result of the present war.

In a more primitive community man finds satisfaction in the variety of work which falls to be done. "Men trust in their hands and everyone is wise in his work. Without these cannot a city be inhabited; they shall not dwell where they will, nor go up and down; they shall not be sought for in publick counsel nor sit high in the congregation, they shall not sit on the judge's seat, nor understand the sentence of judgment; they shall not declare justice and judgment; and they shall not be found where parables are spoken. But they will maintain the state of the world and (all) their desire is in the work of their craft." (Ecclesiasticus c. 38.)

This is a picture of an old unindustrialized, aristocratic society. "How can he get wisdom that holdeth the plough, that glorieth in the goad, that giveth his mind to make furrows?" "The wisdom of a learned man cometh by opportunity of leisure." (*ibid.*)

For 200 years we have been becoming more and more industrialized. An industrial society brings many blessings to man, but it contains within itself the seeds of its own death unless certain safeguards are taken. This was clearly seen from the outset. Adam Smith indeed urged that the State should make elementary education compulsory and make it a public charge, as a check on the inevitable degeneracy both physical and mental which must result from the individual being confined day after day to narrow routine occupations from which inventiveness was excluded and in pursuing which it could no longer be said of the work that his desire was in his work. (*Wealth of Nations*, 1771.)

Since Adam Smith's day popular education has established itself. Schemes of social amelioration of all kinds have been provided, the healthiness of working conditions has been vastly improved, the standard of living has been greatly raised, the length of the working day has been drastically curtailed, and leisure time has become a *sine qua non*. We are no nearer the Golden Age; indeed the world is increasingly restless and dissatisfied. As an American writer well says: "The causes of unrest are not economic but spiritual; not physical but moral. What we are witnessing is the revolt of men who see life passing away without their ever having lived, who face the prospect of carrying their ideals and their aspirations unfulfilled and unspoken to the grave.

"Man under our industrial system—an artist given no opportunity for expression, an inventor employed as an automaton, a thinker tied to a fool-proof machine—is the victim of disappointed instinct, subject accordingly to all kinds of nervous and emotional disturbance. It is not personal indulgence but spiritual ideals he is called upon to sacrifice; not his physical comfort but his life."

The remedy is not to be found in seeking to revive interest where it cannot of itself exist, but in getting men to see life whole and see it true. Life is made up not only of work but also of relaxation and leisure, that is to say, of re-creation in the true sense of the word. The Greeks understood these things better than we do. Aristotle taught that work is something which is done not for its own sake but as a means of livelihood and for subsistence in particular. The ill-effects of work were offset by the right use of play and games, by relaxation in fact.

But the time of the spirit's growth was during the interval of leisure when men occupied themselves in the things that absorbed and interested them for their own sake. It is only when man is so engaged that he is really being educated. Education is essentially an affair of the self. One may endeavour to instruct, but there is no education unless the spirit of the individual works on and assimilates the material offered. Of all the culture enshrined in libraries, art galleries, museums, and in the world at large, only that has value which the individual takes and weaves into the very fibre of his being. It is in leisure that the souls of men will find wisdom and peace, for it is a realm of high delight, infinite and all-satisfying. In it man finds refreshment and he goes back to the workaday world with renewed vigour, understanding, and zest.

Education is not only for the better accomplishment of the daily task; it also points the road to the spirit's freedom. In a real sense education is for leisure. It prepares for leisure in proportion as it fosters interests, quickens curiosity, and develops self-criticism. Plays and games have their place in restoring the poise of body and mind: organized amusements have their place, but real recreation, not lusty enjoyment, is secured only as men learn to make use of their potentialities of self-education. It is a process which is never completed and which lasts as long as life lasts. According to the individual it embraces the heavens above and the earth beneath, literature, history, art, music, craftsmanship, life in the home, the family, the church and society, the companionship of chosen friends, reflection on life and eternity. Wisdom indeed cometh by opportunity of leisure, and life is much more than hard work and robust play and boisterous entertainment.

The reason that education lies under a ban with so many people is that so much of it has seemed out of touch with

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life. It has appeared pedantic and dead. The way out is for teachers themselves to revive their faith in their work and to understand where and how they fail. Their aim is to awaken and liberate the spirits of their pupils. If they do this their teaching is humane; it is alive. It was such a rekindling of faith that marked the work of the great teachers of the Renaissance. They had ceased "to look through a glass darkly". The world pulsated with interest and was of unbelievable richness and colour. Hence their work, whether in literature or in science, had a compelling quality. Its end was the greater glory of God. We ever need to recapture this revivifying spirit of humanism.

No part of education presents greater problems than the education of young workers between 14–18–21. The restrictions and what so often appear to be the artificialities of school have been left behind. The more fortunate have carried away interests, and some are already embarked on the road to self-education and accept gladly the facilities for further education. But the bulk are caught by a flood of new experiences; they are carried away or cast themselves adrift from the old anchorages and are swept on they know not whither. They have found what to them seems freedom, and they are anxious to live their own lives. No greater disservice could be done to these young people than to act as though they had suddenly become wise, knew exactly what they wanted, and how to manage their affairs unaided. It is the sort of fallacy that would leave a young child to grow up without guidance and without discipline, a prey to his own impulses, a slave weary of his 'uncharted freedom' and of the 'weight of chance desires'. Equally fallacious is it to think that any one agency—club or otherwise—and well-intentioned amateurs are the panaceas for dealing with educational problems which call for all the best that experience and skill can provide. The solution will only be found through many agencies and a great variety of talent. Nothing is more certain than that the age of compulsory full-time education will rise. This itself will only provide new problems for solution.

Let us neglect no means. Let us so build that we have no cause to regret wasted opportunity, keeping the end clearly in view, noting the teaching of history and resisting the attraction of hoary heresies no matter how seductively dressed.

> "In Life's true masquerade fools are so blind,
> That half a thin disguise will cheat mankind:
> Here Ostentation weak expedients tries,
> To lead from happiness our wand'ring eyes."

Let us be self-reverent and self-critical even as we reverence others, and seek to foster a spirit of reverence in all with whom we have to deal. Let us finally remember the words of Plato that "there is no higher or holier work than education and all that appertains to it".

EDITIONS OF THE CLASSICS

By E. H. BLAKENEY, formerly Master of Winchester College

IN re-reading, a few days ago, one of the characteristic essays of that great classical scholar, the late Prof. J. E. B. Mayor, I came across some highly pertinent remarks on editions of classical authors. These remarks have been overlooked. He pointed out how much we have neglected the great commentaries of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, and suggested that our universities might well issue *variorum* editions, though not on the old Dutch plan: they should be made more concise, more comprehensive. The outstanding commentaries of the past should be reprinted, with the extrusion of needless matter and the insertion of new material—owing partly to our better knowledge of manuscripts, partly to our extended acquaintance with history and antiquities, thanks to the wealth of inscriptions discovered in our day but previously unknown. Periodical and occasional literature would be examined, with the results carefully sifted out and registered; and (a very important point) adequate lexical indexes added—not in the fashion of the Delppin classics, but on the model of the indexes in Mayor's *Juvenal*. Where possible a translation should be given, primarily because this compels an editor to face all the difficulties of his text, instead of their being slurred over. The value of such a work as Munro's *Lucretius* is vastly enhanced by his admirable English rendering—itself in the nature of a commentary. Let me take one or two examples of such editions as Mayor desired. We have, in such a book as Casaubon's *Suetonius*, what a really adequate commentary should be; it is itself a 'classic', in its way. Gataker's remarkable edition of *Marcus Aurelius* is another book that is a classic; but who nowadays is familiar with it? Yet it is a κτῆμα ἐς ἀεί, and deserves to be reprinted—with, no doubt, a considerable amount of revision where the text is concerned. Again, there is Wetstein's edition of the Greek *New Testament*, a copy of which, we are told, such a scholar as Porson always kept on his desk.

To-day we are too much in the habit of re-editing ancient authors who have already had sufficient attention, while all too many writers are (in this country, at any rate) left undisturbed. Surely we need no more editions of Vergil and Horace, Caesar and Cicero; of Aeschylus and Aristophanes (to mention these only), while Livy as a whole remains unedited, and the Silvae of Statius possesses no adequate commentary since that of Markland, 200 years ago. Terence, too, cries out for a really adequate edition; the last complete one was (*ni fallor*) printed in 1869. Above all, we require a full-dress edition of that great Roman historian, Ammianus Marcellinus; we have nothing, at present, on our shelves. I say no word about such important writers as Tertullian, Prudentius, and a whole collection of Patristic authors; I suppose it is a case of *Christianum est; non legitur*. In earlier times scholars thought very differently.

School editions of the classics have been, and are still being issued in plenty. How many editions of select books of Caesar, Vergil, Horace are there to choose from! *Crambe repetita*, surely. And most of them labour under the disadvantage of giving too much annotation. Books get cluttered up with information that is often needless—information, too, which can so readily be got from a good dictionary and grammar, which boys should be taught to search, especially if a reference be given. I believe that the preparation of these text-books ought *not* to be assigned to university dons, who cannot fully appreciate where young people need help, but to experienced schoolmasters who, from daily teachings, know just where a boy needs assistance while preparing a lesson. Annotations should always be brief—even curt—or they will not be read; and they should be crisp (which they seldom are). Parallel passages should be few in number, given in full, and construes added. One of the best examples, known to me, of the right kind of edition will be found in my friend Prof. H. E. Butler's annotations on the Fourth Aeneid. There is not a superfluous word in the book; and the poet is treated *as* a poet, and not a quarry for the display of grammatical niceties; these and such-like matters must be left for the master to deal with, *viva voce*, in class-time. Another first-rate edition is that of the *Odes of Horace*, by the late John Sargeaunt, one of the most eminent schoolmasters of his time. Unluckily it is little known; would it were otherwise, for, after a dose of Wickham or Gow, to study Horace in

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Sargeaunt's edition is a welcome relief! The old Rugby editions of some of the Greek dramas were admirable; they gave just enough help, and no more, for a boy when preparing a lesson overnight. Are those cheap and handy volumes out of print? If so, why not reissue them, with a little revision? And may I say here that, except in the case of books for beginners, vocabularies should be excluded? Boys should be taught to use the dictionary aright: it is part of their intellectual training.

A word about translations. They were forbidden (but used!) while I was at school. Dr. Giles' 'keys' were the chosen books, so perhaps the prohibition was justified. But my own long experience as a teacher more than inclines me to follow the lead of Montagu Butler, a former Headmaster of Harrow, in pleading for a wise employment of good translations. Only, they must be good, not "that coward's aid, a literal construe". Specially true is this of the poets: boys should have the free run of a fine verse-rendering, such as Conington's *Horace*, or Billson's *Aeneid*. They will then enjoy what they have to read, which they are hardly likely to do if forced to grope about in a difficult text. More than this: they will learn to read authors, not as quarries of grammar nor as vehicles for more or less extraneous information, but as *literature*. And that is the whole object of reading the classics—to train the mind and cultivate a feeling for fine thoughts finely shaped, to appreciate the 'poetry' in a poet. Apart from this, the classics are shorn of half their value, and most of their appeal.

RESEARCH AND SCHOOL WORK

III.—EXPRESSION IN WRITTEN FORM

By Dr. C. M. FLEMING, University of London Institute of Education

At the end of the nineteenth century the chief preoccupation of teachers of English was the formal study of grammar. When justification was required for this it was given in terms of the value of grammar as a mental discipline. It was assumed that drill in grammatical analysis would result in improved ability to write and to recognize correct English. After psychologists began to experiment on school subjects doubt was cast on this transfer of training, and little more relationship was found to exist between grammar and composition or grammar and interpretation than between such subjects as grammar and geography.

The failure of grammar to demonstrate its disciplinary value forced teachers of English to look elsewhere for a definition of their aims, and, as in the case of reading and of arithmetic, attention turned to the social uses of expression. Attempts were made to tabulate the specific types of training in English desired by workers in various occupational groups and the actual frequency of written expression in the activities of ordinary life.

As a consequence of these discussions, less time is now given to the teaching of grammar; and the formal essay-writing and summarizing which at first took its place are giving way to attempts to introduce activities which provide a reason for writing and place each kind of written composition in a natural setting.

An increasing realization of the need of provision for individual differences and the adoption of methods such as the Dalton Plan or the Winnetka technique have also served to increase the amount of incidental practice in written composition; and the experience of many schools has gone to show that pupils learn to write through writing, and that the first task of the teacher of expression is to put pupils into situations in which they have something to say and a desire to say it.

Another line of approach to the determination of the proper aim of the teacher of expression is through a study of pupils' errors. As in the comparable development of the detailed analysis of skill in arithmetic, this type of investigation led to a realization of the complexity of the process under review. The method was at first applied merely to collecting the most obvious breaches of grammatical correctness; but, with the opportunities of analysing comparable material which followed the use of survey tests and diagnostic tests, the interest of investigators turned to more detailed recording of errors in sentence structure, capitalization, and punctuation. (Analysis of still larger masses of material is now being attempted by means of equipment for mechanical tabulation. It will be interesting to note the extent to which the use of such devices confirms the findings of less thorough analysis.)

Results of such analyses have not yet been produced under conditions sufficiently uniform to warrant curriculum-modification on a large scale. They do, however, indicate the possibility of definite location of mechanical difficulties in sentence structure, phrasing, punctuation, and vocabulary. They also show the limited range of errors in most class-rooms, the recurrence of these errors at different ages and the consequent need for drill based upon the pupils' own individual type of mistake. They have led teachers to take two definite steps, (*a*) the diagnostic study of pupils who fall below their class-level in facility of expression, (*b*) experimentation with different types of remedial treatment.

One of the first advantages of a return to case studies from large-scale analyses of errors is that the teacher is reminded that successful composition is more than mere avoidance of error. Letter-writing, note-taking, exposition or argument may be free from mistakes in sentence structure and yet may be inadequate through lack of the power to understand, organize, and express ideas. They may be deficient also in balance, rhythm, and the effective use of words.

Little is yet known as to the factors which accompany success in written expression or as to the optimal mental age at which instruction should be attempted in different types of grammatical usage or punctuation. There is, however, evidence to suggest that growth in vocabulary is a concomitant of increasing mental age, and that the organizing and expression of abstract ideas are beyond the power of pupils of low mental capacity.

Increase in effective expression is also dependent on general vitality and freedom from marked defects of physique, while the social and environmental background of pupils plays a large part in determining the degree of facility to which they attain. Children require a certain measure of security, of encouragement and of the stimulation of books and personal activities before they can achieve skill in the written expression of ideas. They need also a certain measure of success, and a home and school environment which induces interest in writing and provides adequate opportunity for regular practice and the maintenance and development of skill.

In the last ten years there has been a fusion of the two lines of investigation—that through error-counts and study of usage and that based on the difficulties of individual pupils. There has been a marked increase in the number of studies of groups of pupils at different age levels, and a body of information has been collected on the general development of expression in writing. This should ultimately prove of service in the determination of age-levels of performance and the consequent recognition of degrees of disability.

Growth of ability involves highly complex processes—

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development of vocabulary, increase in the range of ideas, acquisition of the art of handwriting and the habits of accepted style, usage, and grammar, as well as familiarity with the rules of punctuation and capitalization. It is therefore not surprising that measurable increments in skill are small when judged by survey tests, and that many fluctuations of ability occur even on the more analytic scales offered for use in diagnosis.

Increasing complexity of thought also retards progress; and errors in simple types of sentence-structure, grammatical form, or spelling may reappear at age levels at which they might have been expected to have been outgrown.

Overlapping of ability from age to age is great, and difficulties are so personal in type that individual instruction seems necessary.

Signs of developing maturity are reported to be: increase in sentence length and in the number of subordinate clauses, variety in word order and the choice of adjectives and decline in ego-centricity. Along with these go increases in the number of marks of punctuation and in the correctness of capitalization. There is, however, so much evidence of difficulty at each stage that the need for constant revision is evident.

From all these lines of approach—error-counts, studies of usage, case-studies, developmental analysis—a certain number of findings seem reasonably well-established on objective grounds.

1. There is a very slow improvement of quality from year to year in composition as measured by any existing scale.

2. The range of ability in any one class (as at present organized) is wide. Individual methods of instruction are, therefore, necessary.

3. The average length of compositions increases rapidly from year to year.

4. Complexity of sentence-structure increases with both mental and chronological age; but there is some evidence that it is more closely related to chronological than to mental age. Enrichment of experience reacts beneficially on written expression.

5. Weakness in use of verb forms accounts for most of the mistakes in usage.

6. Errors are found to occur on a small number of items but the actual type of mistake varies from individual to individual.

7. Formal practice in essay-writing is less successful as a means of increasing facility in written expression than is experience in the active use of expression in natural settings.

8. Detailed correction of errors in essays is less effective than organized practice on exercises devised to overcome the errors.

9. Drills based upon pupil's own types of error are more effective than general drills.

10. Provision for self-correction and pupil responsibility in the use of remedial exercises assist in eliminating errors.

11. Knowledge of progress also increases speed of improvement.

12. Text-books may, with advantage, be analysed from the point of view of gradation of difficulty and frequency of repetition of drill.

13. Individual interviews with pupils as to their reasons for making errors are a valuable means of improving methods of instruction. There is little transfer from knowledge of rules of punctuation, &c., to their correct use.

14. Performance in written composition is affected by physical and mental conditions and by emotional and social experiences.

15. Negative criticism with emphasis on errors is less useful than the provision of a wide variety of interesting practice. Improvement can often be effected by alteration of attitude or a change in the associated emotional experiences of the pupil.

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Much still requires to be done, but the best teaching practice has in the last forty years travelled a long way from the purely formal approach to grammar and the excessive emphasis on correction of errors which once characterized school handling of this subject.

Research is still needed on such topics as :

1. The out-of-school use of written composition at various levels of development.
2. The optimal levels at which to teach various elements of punctuation, capitalization, sentence-structure, use of specific verbs, pronouns, &c.
3. The frequency of use of various elements of punctuation, &c., in writing activities of children at various age-levels.
4. The frequency of use of various elements in proportion to the number of errors made in each by individual children.
5. The relative difficulty of various items under controlled conditions of learning.
6. The effect of correction at various developmental levels.
7. The relationship between skill in expression and health or social adjustment.
8. The measurement of the creative qualities of composition—originality, freshness, and interest.
9. The amount of test material necessary to secure adequate sampling.
10. The variation in performance due to the nature of the test.
11. The value of oral drill as a means of improving written expression.
12. The relative effectiveness of individual versus group instruction.
13. The study technique of successful and unsuccessful pupils.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

SIR,—I wonder whether other schoolmasters share my concern about the teaching of English in higher forms at the present time. In my experience it is becoming increasingly difficult to interest in general reading and wide thinking any but that minority of boys who possess a natural taste for literature. I find it particularly hard to persuade specialists in science and mathematics to read anything outside their own subjects. There seems to be a growing tendency to regard ' English ' as useful mainly as an aid to the writing of précis and technical essays, and the study of ' Literature ' as at best a harmless pastime and at worst a useless bore.

In my school days, forty years ago, we were encouraged to read such prose authors as Carlyle, Ruskin, Macaulay, and Matthew Arnold. Tennyson's vogue was passing, but two at least of the masters to whom I owe most were Browning enthusiasts, and infected many of us with their own enthusiasm. To the modern boy these authors seem pretentious, long-winded, and obscure ; their style has become old-fashioned, and some (though not all) of the questions they discuss have ceased to be topical. But at least they were men of powerful minds wrestling seriously with living problems. ' Literature ' as exemplified in their writings was not a graceful diversion for moments of leisure, but a training in thought and a preparation for life ; and, if in reading them we sometimes had to grapple with needless obscurities, if seriousness occasionally degenerated into pomposity, it was, we felt, worth while to maintain the struggle.

But where, to-day, are their successors ? What modern writers can we recommend to our pupils, if we wish to convince them that literature deals with life, that reading, whether of prose or poetry, will help them to solve their own problems and to win for themselves a truer and ampler vision of the world into which they are entering ? Has modern literature anything to offer besides Waste Lands and Brave New Worlds ? Perhaps some of your readers can help me to find the authors who appeal to the rising generation, who have something worth while to say to them and can say it in a manner worthy of their theme.

There will always, I hope, be a few boys who will read and enjoy Shakespeare, Milton, Keats, and Wordsworth. There will always be others to whom poetry makes little appeal, but who could be taught to read serious prose writers, if they were introduced to the right authors at the right time. Collections of modern essays usually contain gracefully-written pieces all about nothing ; the same is true of collections of modern verse, except that not all the poems are gracefully written. Adolescents, in my experience, like something that they can get their teeth into ; "*belles lettres*" do not appeal to them ; they want a literature that will interpret life to them in terms that they can understand, and it is hard, I find, to meet their requirements.

The ' dead ' languages seem to me far more alive in that respect than modern English. For example, I happen now to be reading with my classical sixth the Antigone, in which the very modern issue between the individual conscience and the totalitarian state is in the forefront of the drama ; the Catilinarian Orations, in which the composition, growth, and terrorist activities of a revolutionary party of modern type are vividly described, and the first two Georgics, with their plea for a return to sane and simple living in co-operation with nature, by contrast with an artificial and decadent city life. If instead of these we had been reading Demosthenes or Tacitus, Aeschylus or Plato, we should equally have been forced to apply the gist of what we read to the world of to-day.

The great need of our education, it seems to me, is the restatement in worthy (that is artistic) form of the fundamental truths on which our civilization is based. If our heritage of classical literature is to be abandoned as the foundation of our education, its place must be filled. And here, in my opinion, is a very difficult and urgent problem.

R. KENNARD DAVIS.

Magdalen College School,
Oxford.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

SIR,—The articles on the training of teachers published in this paper have been interesting. My own experience in this matter might add to the discussion.

I left college in 1928 after the usual two-year course. Teaching in a large city, I was able to continue my training until 1930, by studying for the Teacher's Certificate of the National Froebel Union. The most illuminating part of that work was the History of Education conducted by a professor at the University. I had never been in contact with such a fine intellect. He stated that he did not intend to help us to pass an examination, but to stimulate thought. Most of the earnest students were extremely annoyed at this point of view. Meeting some of these ladies eight years later, they opened the subject of our studies, by condemning this gentleman for earning his money under false pretences. I was unable to convince them of the wider conception of his teaching. The training college had left immature minds, and the eight years of life had not improved them.

In my estimation, the remuneration given to training college lecturers is not sufficient to ensure that the best kind

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of person takes on this work. Many training college lecturers would prefer to teach in a secondary school if they could obtain posts there. Surely teachers ought to be trained by persons who have gifts superior to those possessed by teachers of adolescents!

From 1930 to 1940 I had a varied teaching career in a large city school, a country school, a school for mentally defective children, and open-air schools. For two years I had a headship in an Evening Institute, then one in a Grade 2 Infant School and now in a new Grade 3 School.

During these years I have tried to keep abreast with modern educational theory, but last year I decided to study seriously for the Trainer's Diploma of the National Froebel Foundation. This means I am carrying out in practice the theory advocated by some of the recent writers in this *Journal*. After ten years' practical experience I am studying again.

I have written a thesis on an experiment I conducted in one of my schools. This showed me how little I really knew from the cursory reading of educational books. I had to study intensely. The professor I admired ten years ago told our group of students to try to write a page of perfect English several times each year. It was a pity I had not tried to do this more often.

I have to lecture two hours a week at a training college. I wonder if my students think! At least they ask many questions. Here are the last two questions. "Do you really think it pays to be good?" "If you have always been good yourself, how can you help and understand those who are not good?" I do not think my two lectures on "The Republic of Plato" have been in vain.

I have to study for two written papers. The problems I touched ten years ago are now enriched by experience, and the work is most fascinating. I remember less after trying to learn than I did ten years ago, which is what you would expect, but that is the more reason for trying to learn.

My scheme for improving the training of teachers would be as follows.

First, greater inducement for superior intellects to lecture to students, and the nun-like practice of women lecturers only for women students, to be abolished.

Secondly, no person should receive further increments of salary after eight years' teaching, or become a head teacher, until he has written a thesis on some practical work he has conducted, passed by the Board of Education, or until he has passed a written examination on the "Principles of Education". There would be a choice here, but both methods would ensure revision. After this revision, the remuneration would be greater than it is at present after eight years' teaching, in order to encourage teachers to work for the thesis or examination.

After sixteen years of teaching a similar revision should be planned, and this should include day or longer visits to at least ten schools. The views of such a mature person would be interesting. Again there should be added remuneration for completing this work.

After twenty-four years' teaching, I advocate a six months' course at a university.

Even then the teacher is only about 45, and has fifteen or twenty years more teaching before him.

Some teachers who wished to do so could continue as before, but this scheme gives encouragement to the more intelligent members of the profession. Many teachers regard theoretical knowledge as divorced from their own work, and do not recognize that they are making theory. The pooled knowledge from the theses would be very valuable for research purposes.

I am aware that this scheme will be regarded as unprofessional; teachers should be trusted to keep in touch with present and past educational thought. I trusted myself for ten years and thought I was successful. The disciplined study of the last twelve months has taught me that a scheme such as I suggest would be most beneficial.

A HEADMISTRESS.

FOUR LATIN AUTHORS

SIR,—My note in the March *Journal* on Mr. E. C. Kennedy's *Four Latin Authors* was perhaps too brief for clarity. In saying that if, as Mr. Kennedy wrote, "*patria* can have its first *a* either long or short", it follows that this *a* "sounds like the *a* in *mater*", my point was not to question that the syllable "*pat*" was sometimes scanned long, but to stress the distinction between a (metrically) long *syllable* and a (naturally) long *vowel*. I do not, any more than Mr. Kennedy, wish to set up as an authority on the exact phonetic quality of the *a* in *mater*, but in so far as it is *naturally* long, I think he would agree that its sound was different from the *a* in *patria*, which was *naturally short*.

THE REVIEWER OF THE BOOK.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SIR,—I have read with great interest the series of articles and letters appearing lately in *The Journal of Education* and wonder if I may be allowed to contribute a few words which, I think, have not been said already?

It is clear that the public schools are facing what is probably the most difficult crisis of their existence. Only a few of them have prospered since the slump of 1931–33, and most of them—I am speaking of the *boarding* schools, not the great day schools which also may be represented on the Headmasters' Conference—are seriously diminished in numbers, some of them by as much as one-half and many by one-third to one-quarter of their peak number. They are having the gravest difficulties to make ends meet and to maintain the amenities for which they are famous. All sorts of proposals have been made to reduce costs, all sorts of expedients resorted to. Some people think that their day is done and that they ought to be abolished or allowed to disappear; others think that they are of such portentous value in our social life that at all costs they ought to be preserved and bolstered up, if need be, by State aid and by the admission of pupils from the public elementary schools or from the secondary day schools.

It is improbable that any system by which a proportion of our abler elementary schoolboys were privileged to enter the great public schools along with their present *clientèle* would work: it would be an artificial and unnatural arrangement and would have an unsettling effect upon all concerned. Moreover, much of the so-called 'personality' of the schools would be so modified in the process as virtually to disappear; and, as its preservation is of cardinal importance in the eyes of the defenders of the public-school system, the purpose for which the infiltration was undertaken would be frustrated. Secondly, any scheme which took from our day secondary schools the cream of their boys, whether at, say, 13, or at 16 after the school certificate examination, and transferred them to the public boarding schools, would be disastrous. It is doubtful whether it would be in the interests of the boys so transferred: it is certain that it would be detrimental to the boys left behind and would do incalculable harm to the day schools which are, after all, the backbone of our present educational system.

If it is impossible for the public schools to be preserved in any other way the question whether they are worth preserving must be frankly and honestly faced, having regard, above all, to changing social conditions. In this connexion it is important to ask ourselves how far the advantages of the public school are intrinsic to the system and how many are merely adventitious. Obviously their beautiful buildings, their chapels, libraries, swimming baths, squash-courts, playing fields, and so on are adventitious; it is an adventitious advantage that their high fees and social attractiveness have enabled them to command the service and interest of many of the ablest graduates and games-men proceeding from the universities, so ensuring a

(*Continued on page* 302)

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remarkable tradition for scholarship and athletic prowess. It is their good fortune that their boys coming, on the whole, from wealthier homes are able to stay longer at school and so develop those powers of leadership and initiative so much prized in our British democracy. Length of school life has much to do with that 'liberality' of education on which so much stress is rightly laid, because on it depend the size of sixth forms and the worth-whileness of providing all sorts of facilities for advanced work in classics, history, science, languages, music, &c. A liberal education is as much possible in a day school as in a boarding school: if the public schools have hitherto enjoyed a marked advantage in this respect it is because their boys often come from more cultured homes.

Then it is claimed that the public school is best at inculcating a sense of responsibility and the community life and leadership. There might have been something to be said for this claim in the days of Dr. Arnold and Tom Brown, but it is doubtful if there is so much now. Discipline in all schools is apt to be a great deal better than it was 80 to 100 years ago, when members of the sixth and fifth forms gambled and drank and carried on intrigues with the girls of the village. Nowadays there is almost, if not quite, as much scope for the development of the virtues and powers of leadership in the day school as in the boarding school. A bad spirit at the top of the school, inferior prefects, have the same effect in both institutions, except that in the boarding school the risks of real disaster are greater. On the games field, in scouts, J.T.C., A.T.C., and so on, the powers and scope of leadership are much the same in both types of school; off the fields and out of the form-room things are not much different; indeed, the day-boy prefect may be more hardly tested in preserving discipline on a train, railway platform, or public bus than his public-school equivalent in the corridor or the dormitory where there is usually also a master within earshot.

The claim that the public school implants a better sense of good manners, more courtesy and consideration for others, and encourages an absence of personal arrogance and aggressiveness, is clearly unfounded. These things depend infinitely more upon the home and the home-upbringing and inheritance of the boy than upon the type of school to which he is sent. In religious training, school chapels, corporate worship, the public schools enjoy a great advantage—of which, I think, they have often made anything but the best use—but this advantage is not intrinsic to themselves. There is no intrinsic reason why every day school should not have its chapel and its religious life and, in my view, they ought to have them and to lay great store by them. There should be definite Christian teaching and practice in all Christian schools, though not necessarily or usually upon a narrow denominational basis. The school chapel can be and should be a focus of emotional attachment for all members of a school, and for the abler boys it should also stand for the intellectual keystone of their purpose in life.

Another vital point urged in favour of the public boarding schools is the degree of independence they enjoy. Here indeed they have a great advantage, but, if this be generally agreed, why should the advantage not be extended to all the other schools, many of which are labouring with difficulty under the unenlightened direction of sadly ignorant public committees? But, once again, the advantage here enjoyed is not intrinsic, but incidental, implicit in the history of the public schools though it is.

A great deal of the attractiveness of the public schools depends not upon the system that we associate with them but upon the quality of the boys that are sent to them and the masters that teach in them. These in turn depend upon the homes that produce the boys: a good home produces a good boy, a bad home a boy who is not so good, to whatever rank of wealth or society he may belong: and there is no disputing the fact that in the past the public schools have had something approaching a monopoly of the social cream, or, if not a monopoly, too much of it. What would our local grammar schools be if all the best boys, intellectually and socially, in the neighbourhood, attended them instead of being sent off to Rugby or Charterhouse or Wellington? Who could deny that they would be greatly enriched? There are some apposite remarks in the early pages of *Tom Brown's Schooldays* where the author is deploring the decline of the village fair or 'yeast' which he attributes to the fact "that gentlefolk and farmers have taken to other amusements, and have, as usual, forgotten the poor. They don't attend the feasts themselves, and call them disreputable, whereupon the steadiest of the poor leave them also, and they become what they are called. Class amusements—and, one may add, class education—be they for dukes or ploughboys, always become nuisances and curses to a country". Mr. Aneurin Bevan is right when he says that "if the apologists of the public schools want to benefit the children of the poor, there cannot be a better way than to mix all the children together".

In those day schools of great tradition, like St. Paul's, Manchester Grammar School, King Edward's, Birmingham, where boys stay till 18, religion, loyalty, scholarship, gifts of leadership and initiative, are as real as they are anywhere else. The quality of all schools depends fundamentally on three factors—upon the kind of homes from which the boys come—I mean upon the moral and religious and cultural atmosphere of those homes, not upon their worldly wealth—, upon the length of time those boys are allowed to stay at school, and upon the personalities with whom they come into intimate contact. When these facts are recognized and our practice is based upon them, we shall have gone a long way towards solving our educational and social problems.

A. R. WOOLLEY.

Wellingborough Grammar School.

EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

THE ALLIES IN SCOTLAND

(From a Scottish Correspondent)

THE first week-end of June saw two very happy ceremonies in the city of Edinburgh, both of them sponsored by the British Council. The first of these was the opening by Mr. Tom Johnston, Secretary of State for Scotland, before a distinguished gathering, of an exhibition of works of art by artists of our allies. The Council, by the kindness of the Trustees, had procured for the purpose the National Gallery of Scotland and there are now displayed more than 400 works—paintings in oils and water colours, prints and drawings, sculpture and applied architecture—representing every nation among our allies. Many of the paintings, pieces of sculpture and architectural works are by serving soldiers of the Polish Army, while the artists include a Dutch Major-General and a Norwegian General. The selection and hanging have been done with the maximum effect by Mr. Stanley Cursitor, Director of the National Gallery. When I looked in to see him on the Monday evening following the opening I found him delighted with the reception which the public had given this extremely lively show. He told me that 500 copies of the catalogue, priced at one shilling, had been printed and that he had about ten left. Hurried arrangements were being made for a further large printing.

The Secretary of State's speech was, very rightly, based on his conviction that art knew no boundaries, and that towards a mutual understanding between nations few things could be more fruitful than exhibitions of this kind. Sir John

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Chancellor, Assistant Chairman of the British Council, put before the audience with modesty, but with conviction, the aim of his Council to give these foreigners now in our midst an opportunity of maintaining their national spirit on British soil and of getting to know the contribution which Britain has made to European culture.

One remarkable feature of the exhibition is the freedom from the depression of war. These artists, utilizing often the scenes in this country, in which their lot has cast them, have given rein to their natural aptitudes with the result that, for variety of themes and handling, the show is one of the most interesting ever seen in Scotland.

The second ceremony was that of the opening, on Sunday, June 1, of a Scottish-Polish house in Edinburgh. A typical Edinburgh residence has been acquired by the British Council and furnished in admirable taste for use as a social and cultural centre by the Polish troops serving in Scotland. The principal speaker at this ceremony was the Earl of Elgin, who emphasized the literary relationships which have long existed between Poland and Scotland. It was manifest from the atmosphere of the gathering that already Polish men and women who have come to Scotland are displaying an adaptability that gives deep reason for thankfulness. Hardly one of the Poles at the ceremony but has had experiences of a kind that might well daunt the most sanguine heart. Yet the prevailing spirit was not that the best must be made of a bad job but that, by sustaining a resolute hope for the future and by keeping the mind well employed, a day would yet emerge in which these Polish men and women will, in their own country, reciprocate the kindness now being shown them.

Much of the success of these ceremonies is due to the untiring efforts of Mr. H. Harvey Wood, Scottish Regional representative of the British Council.

NEW ZEALAND

THE report of an interesting experiment in child nutrition, undertaken under the auspices of the New Zealand Council for Educational Research, is given in *Child Nutrition in a Rural Community*, by H. C. D. Somerset. From February 1934 to May 1938 records were made of all the children attending the consolidated school which serves the greater part of an area of 350 square miles of mixed farming lands. The district may be described as a healthy one; the school buildings are new and modern; the rooms are separate units built on the open-air plan, that is, three of the walls of each room can be opened at will. Motor-buses convey slightly more than half of the children to school.

At the beginning of 1934 it was apparent to discerning teachers in the school (a district high school with a secondary department of 40 pupils) that achievement in studies was not what it used to be; nor was the health of the children what it should have been. There were all too frequent signs of fatigue—pale faces where there used to be rosy evidence of good health. The economic depression, which was entering upon its third year, was making itself felt in the district. Was it taking toll of the children's health? To answer this question a nutrition survey of all pupils in the school was undertaken, and, when it was found that a serious position was revealed, the school co-operated with the community in an attempt to improve matters. The improvement in nutrition, as the result of a vigorous campaign in the school against malnutrition, was reflected in an improvement in the studies of individual pupils. The experiment stands, therefore, as an example of the modern idea of the widening function of education.

The first step was to examine the medical record cards. It was found that only 5 per cent of the pupils were classified as malnutrition cases. The methods used were apparently not sensitive enough to reflect trends in child health due to economic changes in the community, and it was felt that this could be remedied if the clinical examina-

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tions of the medical officers (each of whom was examining between thirty and forty children daily) were combined with a simple objective method of arriving at a nutrition index—one that could be made by teachers as part of school routine.

After some consideration, it was decided to use an age-height-weight scale as the measuring rod for estimating the standard of nutrition. The one used was on the lines of the Baldwin-Wood Scale, but prepared by the Department of Public Health, Toronto, and known as the Toronto Scale. On this scale ' malnutrition ' meant more than 10 per cent below standard weight, and ' subnutrition ' 8, 9 and 10 per cent below. The first weighing (February 1934) gave the following percentages :

Subnutrition	.. 13·2
Malnutrition	.. 25·0

In May of the same year (there was an outbreak of measles meanwhile) the figures were :

Subnutrition	.. 8·7
Malnutrition	.. 25·1

A third weighing (September 1934) gave :

Subnutrition	.. 15·2
Malnutrition	.. 14·6

This shows an apparent improvement which largely disappears when the subnutrition and malnutrition figures are added together.

A further examination of the occupations of parents showed that the excessive malnutrition was evenly distributed through all the economic groups of the district. Thus it was not directly due to poverty. But ignorance of food requirements was general, and there was need to urge parents so to order their home lives that the children had ample sleep and were not burdened with their parents' worries.

Immediately after the February weighing in 1935 a campaign against malnutrition was started. Regular meetings of parents were organized, and lectures given on diet, food values, &c. A committee was formed to go into the question of a milk ration for underweight children. The result was that in twelve months the amount of malnutrition in the school fell from 23 per cent to 8·5 per cent, and subnutrition from 11·5 per cent to 9·0 per cent.

The study showed, then, that a good health campaign is abundantly effective, and that a milk ration is the biggest single influence in improving nutrition. The best results came with individuals. One boy with an intelligence quotient of 120 was achieving only mediocre results in school. His nutritional status was found to be 15 per cent below normal. He was given a pint of milk daily, relieved of homework, and recommended a full twelve hours' sleep a day. By the end of the year his nutrition was nearly normal and his achievement came into line with his intelligence. " To improve his geometry and algebra he needed, not extra homework, but extra calcium and sleep."

The time taken for measurement of nutrition was negligible—say four minutes per child per year. The result of the experiment seems to show that, if preventive medicine is the best kind of social security, the best place to begin is the school, and that teachers are in the best strategic position to supplement the remedial work of school medical officers.

S. B. L.

GIFTED CHILD PROBLEMS IN THE U.S.A.

SO much has been heard about the problem child and his studies that it is a pleasant change to read that in the United States efforts are now being made for the gifted child.

The Teachers College of Columbia University recently held a conference on Education for the Gifted, for it is generally agreed by American teachers that many gifted children are victimized, even by their teachers.

For example, it is believed that a child who knows all the answers, is far brighter than any other children in the class, and may even make the teacher look silly on one or two occasions, is picked out to do the class chores because there is nothing the teacher can teach him.

Such children used to be called favourites. They were always called upon to clean the blackboard, to straighten the books, to run little errands for the teacher. Actually, other children resented these favours and in the long run the gifted child suffered from these little attentions.

In the United States there is a movement afoot to bring these children together in special classes where they may work at ease and among children with equal gifts. The argument in favour of this is that gifted children, when attending school, may become lazy. They find the work very easy, make no efforts, carry off most of the prizes. Then they go to high school or college, where they are likely to meet a greater percentage of bright students than they did in the elementary school. Now, instead of shining they appear dull. They still believe that they can carry everything before them without effort.

The argument against the segregation of the gifted is that it would warp their characters, make them feel very superior, mould them into an unsocial and even anti-social class.

On this score a recent survey by Prof. Terman is interesting. Over a period of years he followed the careers of 1,300 young men and women who passed through the Speyer School, Manhattan ; all of them fell into the gifted class.

At the time of writing the figures are not complete, for naturally such a survey must be spread over a great many years, and the recent disclosures by the professor deal with men and women now between the ages of 26 and 32. Prof. Terman started his investigation in 1922.

Out of the total mentioned above, 3 per cent had died sixteen years after leaving high school. Of the survivors, about 95 per cent of the boys and 85 per cent of the girls had continued their studies at college. Most of them were about two years below the average age of their year and many of them acquitted themselves well. A good proportion, however, did not do very well.

Law, engineering, geology, and medicine attracted a large percentage of the boys. Teaching, religion, and social work also had their followers, some became jazz musicians, a few went to Hollywood, one became a policeman, another a fox farmer. Less than 1 per cent of them were out of work and none was on relief.

Average earnings were about £10 per week, although one young lawyer still in the twenties was turning over £2,500 a year, and the jazz musicians were earning at least £20 per week.

The girls were not so well paid. Many became teachers, a large percentage went into offices and libraries. There were also nurses and interior decorators among them. About half the total number had married, and of these 8 per cent had divorced.

The moral standard of these gifted children is " well above the average ", according to Prof. Terman. Three boys had criminal records and two or three girls had illegitimate children, while one of the girls had become a prostitute. A small percentage also drank a good deal.

The conclusion drawn by the professor is that on the average his gifted children are doing well, although none of them has become a leader in his or her profession.

Meanwhile the struggle for special schools for the gifted goes on.

S. H. KAHN

THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

THE Rockefeller Foundation has published *A Review for 1940* by its President, Raymond B. Fosdick. He cites some institutes now under German domination and remarks that " to sit by and watch the disappearance or decadence, or, worse, the perversion of institutions of learning which in earlier and better days we were privileged to assist is not an easy assignment ". Owing to the war, many scientific workers scattered throughout the world have been recalled.

(*Continued on page* 306)

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Dr. Fosdick gives a vivid account of University conditions on the Continent, " now little short of appalling ". How can mankind prosper without the lamp of science and learning and " a light unto my path " ? The Foundation is doing noble work in relation to refugee scholars of some eleven nationalities. " One was a Nobel prize winner ; nearly all had international reputations ". At Lord Lothian's suggestion the Foundation arranged for the training of British medical students in the medical schools of the United States and Canada. About £2,000,000 was expended in promoting public health, science, and humanities—a truly wonderful record of a year's work. If capitalism can produce such results, Dr. Fosdick may be able to convert Stalin.

STUDENTS IN CHINA

A RECENT issue of *The Manchester Guardian* quotes extracts from *China at War*, a journal published in Chungking, which shows the serious effect of the war between China and Japan on the lives of many thousands of Chinese students.

The Chinese Government is keeping 30,000 students in colleges and middle schools on its " feeding roll ". This involves a yearly outlay of well over $5,000,000 from the nation's already heavily taxed treasury. All these students come from the war areas and are cut off from ordinary sources of support. Without Government aid they would have found it difficult even to keep body and soul together not to speak of receiving a standard school education. " The financial assistance," the journal says, " takes two forms : loans and half-loans. Recipients of the former, in principle, are required to repay the whole amount after their graduation, while those of the latter only half. So far, however, few, if any, are known to have made repayments on these loans, which, as a result, have become outright subsidies.

" Loans are issued as pocket money, as payment for tuition, to pay for uniforms, as special relief, and, in most cases, as food allowances. Originally a monthly food allowance amounted to seven or eight dollars a student. Later, on account of the rising cost of rice, the sum was steadily increased. At present it ranges from $11 to $16, depending on the prices in different localities.

" The cost of living in some places has gone up so high that, even with Government subsidies, students have to subsist on the poorest diet. Meat and fresh vegetables have become increasingly scarce in their fare. Taking recognition of the adverse effect on the students' health, the educational authorities have launched a movement for the students to raise pigs and poultry, to grow cabbages and other foodstuffs for their own consumption."

FRANCE

THE new director of the École Normal Supérieure, Monsieur Carcopino, recently published figures of pupils who fell during the campaign of 1939–40. Out of 150 Normaliens, 130 were called-up, and out of these only one is missing. Nineteen are known to be prisoners of war, 4 were wounded, and about 12 received the Croix de Guerre.

The buildings of the famous École in the Rue d'Ulm were taken over by the Germans when they entered Paris. Although a request was made for them to move so that the activities of the school could carry on, the Nazis refused, and it is now learned that the school has been transferred to the École Polytechnique.

NEW MEDIA

AN EXPERIMENT WITH FILMS

I.—Investigation of the Effectiveness of Films in Teaching

By GLADSTONE DUNKERLEY

THE experiment carried out by the writer was designed to test the theory that children taught with the help of films learn and remember better than children taught by the ordinary aided oral methods. The experiment was thus a direct learning-comparison between two equal groups of children, one group being instructed with the aid of films and the other group having the same lessons, based on the films, but not seeing the film itself. The topic chosen—" The Human Body "—was new to all the subjects ; this meant that a " control group " could be dispensed with. The children were quite used to films as a normal teaching aid, and it was therefore not necessary to have preliminary films for familiarization purposes. The groups were constituted from senior school boys and girls of ages between 12 years 3 months and 13 years 5 months, the groups being equated on intelligence, number, and sex. The lessons were given in a double period of one hour, each week, with a further period of half an hour each week for the taking of notes on the lessons given. The experiment lasted for five weeks, each lesson being self-contained as a subject. This was to allow for ease of marking in the final examination, and to prevent the undue penalizing of a child who missed one lesson only of the whole course. The several topics were as follows : An introductory lesson, given without film to both groups conjointly, on " Our Body " ; a lesson on " Blood " with a film of that title for the Film Group ; a lesson on " Circulation " with film ; a lesson on " Breathing " with film ; a lesson on " Vision " with film.

The intelligence test used in constituting the groups was the 1932 Mental Survey Test issued by the Scottish Council for Research in Education. From the results of this test the two groups were made up by placing children of as near the same intelligence as possible in opposite groups, alternating the advantage where any was forced to occur. There were eleven girls and nine boys in each group, the groups being designated the " F " (Film) and " NF " (Non-film) groups.

The first lesson was an introduction to the human body and some of its systems ; in it were included the idea of living things, the seven characteristics of living organism, the cell concept, the skeletal and muscular systems, and the nervous and digestive systems. Notes were made of the important points of the lesson, as with all subsequent lessons.

The film used for the F Group in the second lesson was the Gaumont British Instructional film " Blood ", a good film dealing with corpuscles and their function, separation from plasma, the clotting of blood and its oxygenating function. A commentary was given as the film was showing and the lesson given to the NF Group was based on the film, including all the facts derived therein.

The third lesson, on " Circulation ", used the G.B.I. film of that title for the F Group. This film contains a good shot of a rabbit's heart beating and animated diagrams faded into a human body to show the circulation. A mechanical apparatus to demonstrate blood flow and the loss of the pulsing in the capillaries is cleverly illustrated by a turnstile analogy in the film-cartoon style. The necessity for a circulation and the detailed structure of the heart were considered during the lesson.

The G.B.I. film " Breathing ", used in the fourth lesson, shows various things burning in air or using oxygen in other ways. A little of the chemistry of sugar, although well applied, was outside the chemical knowledge of the children in the present experiment, but the animated diagrams and the analogies drawn between burning and breathing were easily understandable. Several experiments shown in the film were performed in the classroom during the lesson with the NF group.

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In the final lesson the G.B.I. film "Vision" was used for the F group. This film illustrates the similarity between the eye and the box camera, a diagram of which latter was faded into a diagram of the eye. The parts and functions of the eye were shown, although the diagram of the eye itself might have been left longer on the screen to allow for detailed examination. The defects of the eye, their correction, and the blood supply to the eye itself were dealt with in the film and also in the lesson.

In all the foregoing film lessons the film was previewed by the teacher—an important requirement—and a running commentary was given during the showing of the film to the F group.

TESTING THE KNOWLEDGE GAINED

1. *The "Immediate" Test.*—This examination was designed to test the knowledge which the children had gained at a time not far removed from the actual lessons; it was set within a week of the last lesson of the series. The children had complete notes and had also the normal opportunity to revise these notes. No set revision was given, however, and there was no inkling given of an imminent test for which the children must revise the notes which they had. In order to prevent the higher scoring of a child who might possibly have learnt the notes by heart, it was necessary to devise questions for the final examination which could not necessarily be answered by mere learning of the notes by rote. It was necessary, in other words, that basic principles as apart from detailed and specialized knowledge should be tested and that the questions should be so disguised that mental correlation and understanding would have to take place before answer could be made. In addition, the questions were to be such that they would allow of differentiation between the Film Group and the Non-film Group, but care was necessary that no advantage was given to either.

The questions were of the New Type Test style, this method of examination being the best for detecting knowledge and being easy to mark although difficult to set, especially in view of the necessary conditions. The questions were of the short-answer, completion, or multiple-choice type, such as the children were familiar with in intelligence tests. There were six questions on each separate topic of the whole scheme, with the exception of the introductory lesson on the body in general. No diagrams were to be drawn in the answers, and no long description was necessary. The questions were so designed that an average of five words would be sufficient to answer any single question completely.

Analysis of Results: The range of the marks scored was from 32 to 90 per cent in the two groups combined, being made up of a range of 41 to 90 per cent in the F group and a range of 32 to 78·5 per cent in the NF group. Inspection of the marks revealed that the top four children were in the F group and that at least the bottom five children were in the NF group. The average score for the F group was 8·5 per cent higher than that for the NF group, these averages being 60·7 and 52·2 per cent respectively. There was thus an appreciable gain on the part of the F group in the case of the Immediate Test.

Furthermore, it was evident that some children had gained considerably by being in the film group as regards their position in the final score-table compared with their usual average position for an ordinary routine science test for which films had not been used. In one case the gain was as much as twenty-two places in position, and gains of seventeen, fourteen and ten places were amongst those recorded. Gains by children who were not in the film group were also noticed in comparison with their normal position for ordinary science tests, but such gains were only small, being of the order of five places at the most. These latter gains were presumably due to interest in the new topic.

Losses in position on the part of children placed in the non-film group were also evident, examples being eighteen places, sixteen places, ten places, &c. These gains and losses, where greater than six or so, are too large to be attributed to increased or diminished interest in the new topic, and appear therefore to be of great significance in the effects of the film or non-film technique employed respectively.

Where a child had been absent from school for one portion of the whole topic, his marks for the answers to other portions were averaged and an average score was given for the portion missed. This was legitimate because of the fact that the several portions of the whole topic were complete in themselves within the lesson given.

2. *The Delayed "Retention Test."*—The experiment here described was also used to test the theory that the information gained is retained better than information gained from normal oral methods of presentation. This theory is based on the supposition that film tuition creates clearer impressions and gives wider associations by means of which children can remember better the material presented. The theory is tested by means of a delayed "retention test" given some time after the immediate test. The findings of such a delayed test are interesting, and afford strong justification for the use of films in schools. In the next article the theoretical considerations for the retention test will be examined. A description and analysis of the results obtained from the present experiment will also be given.

Educational Films.—The British Film Institute has appointed Mr. Bernard E. Gillett, of the Rea Street Senior Boys' School, Birmingham, as the Travelling Teacher Organizer recommended in the Report of the Educational Film Campaign conducted at the request of the Board of Education last year. Mr. Gillett's duties will be to maintain personal contact with Directors of Education and teachers throughout the country—working with the Board of Education and the Institute; to give lecture-demonstrations and advice and to encourage and assist in the formation of local Teachers' Film Groups wherever possible, and he will also follow up, as far as is practicable, the other recommendations of the Report, especially those which apply to Training Colleges.

Mr. Gillett's appointment is a result of a generous grant from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees of £1,000 to follow up the British Film Institute Educational Campaign of last year. He has been specially released for this duty by the R.A.F., with whom he was serving in the Balloon Barrage Squadron.

A Philatelic Curiosity for Teachers.—The welfare stamp recently published by the International Bureau of Education will interest many teachers. This stamp is a reproduction of the famous painting by Ramos of Pestalozzi, which hangs in the Museum in Madrid. The issue is in sheets of twelve stamps in two series of different colours (wine red and brown). By acquiring this war-time philatelic curiosity, teachers will also be helping to support the work which the International Bureau of Education has undertaken during hostilities: namely, the individual and collective dispatch of books to prisoners of war. The International Bureau of Education stamp will be the first of a series devoted to the principal educators of the world. In the class-room, teachers will be able to use the Pestalozzi stamp as a centre of interest for a current news lesson on the humanitarian activity of the Red Cross, or on the life and work of the great Swiss educator, &c. The sheets of stamps (2 Swiss francs each), or separate stamps (20 Swiss centimes each) can be procured from stamp dealers or direct from the International Bureau of Education, Geneva, Switzerland, by sending an international reply coupon for each stamp.

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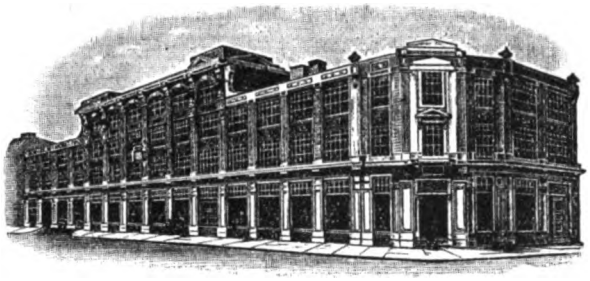

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TOPICS AND EVENTS

ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS IN TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS

THE Annual Conference of the A.T.T.I. was held in London during Whitsuntide.

No formal resolutions were submitted to the Conference but expressions of opinion were forthcoming from members and arose from the discussion of the Report of the Executive Committee, the Annual Report of Council, and the Presidential Address.

The Conference noted with satisfaction that the Air Ministry had accepted the principle that suitable classes in technical institutions should be regarded as equivalent to instructional parades of the Air Training Corps. Some apprehension was expressed at the incomplete knowledge on the part of local officers of the Ministry of Labour, of the qualifications of the staffs of technical institutions and the nature of the equipment to be found in these buildings. This had resulted in a faulty allocation of trainees as between Government Training Centres and technical colleges.

Mr. S. H. Moorfield, of the Mining and Technical College, Wigan, continues as President for a second year and the following also retain their offices for that period: Mr. H. J. Cull, Vice-President; Dr. E. A. Seeley, Ex-President; and Mr. D. W. Lloyd, Hon. Treasurer.

During the Conference Mr. J. Paley Yorke, O.B.E., M.Sc., A.M.I.E.E., was elected as an Honorary Member in acknowledgment of his services as Leader of the Teachers' Panel of the Burnham Technical Committee, and of his long and continued efforts in furthering the interests of technical education through the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education and other channels. He has now retired from teaching service.

Board of Education Circulars and Memoranda.—*Circular* 1552 (Ministry of Health Circular 2367) deals with the after-care of evacuated children when they leave school. These children need help to secure suitable employment and facilities for social and recreational activity. This after-care of school leavers offers a useful field of co-operation between teachers, representatives of the local education and billeting authorities, of the Ministry of Labour and National Service, and leaders of voluntary organizations for young people.

Circular 1553 (*Ministry of Health Circular* 2388), "War-time Nurseries for the Care of Children under Five Years of Age", announces a number of important changes in the arrangements for these nurseries. The object is to assist in bringing about a rapid expansion in the provision of nurseries. The Government will take over the full financial responsibility for all war-time nurseries. A joint staff of the Ministry of Health and the Board of Education will co-ordinate activities. The new scheme does not affect war-time residential nurseries, nursery schools, or nursery classes in public elementary schools.

Administrative Memorandum No. 295 is on the subject of Schoolboy Harvest Camps. It refers to consultations between the Board of Education and the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, which have resulted in a memorandum being sent to County War Agricultural Executive Committees in England and Wales, and a circular letter to headmasters of schools, enclosing in each case a document suggesting the lines on which harvest camps for boys should be organized this year. A special scheme to give Personal Accident Insurance to schoolboys working on farms has been arranged by insurance companies.

Administrative Memorandum No. 297 states that the Board will recognize for grant additional expenditure on cost-of-living or war bonus to whole-time employees of local education authorities, whose remuneration does not exceed £350 a year in the case of men, or £300 a year in the case of women, provided that the bonus is not more favourable on the whole than that now payable to Civil Servants. Teachers whose salaries are regulated by the Burnham Scales are excluded, as are also industrial staffs.

Administrative Memorandum No. 299 refers to the desirability of eating National Wheatmeal Bread in school canteens; and also to the reduction in the allowance of meat for school canteens.

Administrative Memorandum No. 300 refers to Rules 106 (P.) showing the arrangements and conditions agreed upon between the Institutions of Mechanical and of Production Engineers and the Board of Education for the award of Higher National Certificates in Production Engineering.

Memorandum No. 25 in *The Schools in War-time* series refers to the collection by school children of leaves and roots of common wild plants, such as stinging nettle, foxglove, roots of dandelion, which are needed for the production of drugs. It lists the plants to be found in the different counties of England and Wales.

First Post-War Claim on Buildings.—Mr. Chuter Ede, addressing the Annual Convention of the Yorkshire Council for Further Education, said that at least two-thirds of our young people between the ages of 14–18 had no contact with our educational system. This meant a very heavy waste of much of the formal education effort lavished on their earlier years. Even with the raising of the school-leaving age to 15 this wastage would continue unless continuation schools were established. He told the Council that it was not too early for them and similar bodies concerned with further education to consider the problems of staff, buildings and curriculum. They should consult employers, trade unions and teachers and formulate the most effective means by which day continuation schools could take their appropriate place in our educational system.

Mr. Ede said that the first post-war claim on building would be for the restoration and extension of full-time schooling. In his view it would be fatal to the success of the day continuation schools to start them in makeshift and inadequate premises. Referring to the raising of the school-leaving age, Mr. Ede said that he did not anticipate any great extension of the curriculum. For some pupils the present courses were too hurriedly covered in three years. By spreading the course over four years pupils would have more time to overcome difficulties and to master one phase of a subject before tackling the next.

Mr. Ede also said that a disappointing feature of evening institute work was the failure of so large a proportion to complete a consecutive course. "We must deplore the number who fall out by the way and the still larger number who never start at all." To overcome this Mr. Ede suggested ever closer contact with employers and trade unions, frequent consultations with youth leaders, interviews with school leavers and any other personal touches suitable to the individual.

Fewer Children without Education.—A substantial improvement in the school position has been announced by the Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education. Speaking to the Dorsetshire County Teachers' Association at Dorchester, Mr. Chuter Ede said that on April 1 last, full-time education was available for 96·5 per cent of the elementary school-children in the country compared with 93·2 per cent on December 6 last. 2·6 per cent of children were now getting something less than full-time education, while the number receiving no instruction had been reduced from nearly 100,000 to 40,749.

(*Continued on page* 312)

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About ten years ago the Oxford University Press circulated for criticism by Colonial education officials a list of 2,000 words, on the basis of which it was planned to compile English Readers for Colonial and Foreign Schools. At this time Dr. Faucett's *Oxford English Course* was published and a comprehensive scheme began to take shape for the provision of Text-books in all subjects linked with and carefully related to the pupil's progress in English study according to word-frequency principles.

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In History:

TROPICAL AFRICA IN WORLD HISTORY, by T. R. Batten. Four Books (I, 1*s.* 10*d.*; II, 2*s.* 3*d.*; III, 2*s.* 3*d.*; IV, 2*s.* 6*d.*) provides a complete course in history for African secondary schools, concluding with a masterly summary of the causes and issues of the present war.

In Science:

GENERAL SCIENCE FOR TROPICAL SCHOOLS, by F. Daniel. Five Books (I, 2*s.* 6*d.*; II, 3*s.*; III, 4*s.*; IIIa (Health Science), 1*s.* 6*d.*; IV, 5*s.*, *in the press*) which, in experimental duplicated form, have already been adopted as the basis of future science teaching in Malaya. The volume in *Health Science* is optional and can be studied independently.

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Meals and Milk for School Children in Scotland.—The importance of maintaining school feeding schemes throughout the year, not only to meet special conditions arising from the war, but also to ensure that the nutrition of the school child may be maintained and even improved, is stressed in a circular issued to education authorities by the Scottish Education Department. The Department address themselves particularly to those authorities whose schools are mostly scattered in rural areas and who have not found it possible to institute far-reaching schemes of communal feeding. The Department now recommend these authorities not to close down their soup kitchens with the advent of summer but to explore the possibility of providing a meal consisting of a thick, well-flavoured vegetable soup accompanied by brown bread; or, as an alternative in the warmer weather, and as supplies of home produce become available, to serve a cold meal of salad, brown bread, milk and fruit (if available). Meals of this kind can play an important part in maintaining the health of the school child; and authorities are urged to consult their domestic science teachers on questions of diet and the proper preparation of food. The Department also point out that the provision of such meals will depend very largely upon the supplies of fresh vegetables which can be obtained locally and most of which can be grown in the school gardens. All possible measures should therefore be taken to increase food production in the school gardens and allotments.

Education in Wales.—During May the Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education visited a number of local education authorities in Wales to discuss current problems with their representatives.

At the end of his visit, Mr. Ede said he had been greatly impressed by the manner in which the education service had taken the war strain. Local administrators had courageously faced and overcome the difficulties created by the emergency. Despite the language problem, reception of evacuated children had been an outstanding success. The school medical services had been severely tested but were carrying out efficiently their routine inspections and treatment for an increased school population. The school meal service was growing in many areas in response to the increased demands caused by the war-time employment of women. Interruptions to the milk scheme had occurred. In most places the supply has been resumed. Elsewhere the situation was receiving continuous attention with the object of removing hindrances to resumption.

Mr. Ede expressed his lively satisfaction with the rural senior schools he had seen. Each had exhibited an individuality that was a striking tribute to the spirit of educational adventure and experiment with which it was being conducted. These schools were using the child's environment and inclinations as the basis of an education which give zest and interest to the school life of the non-academically minded pupils. The influence of these schools on post-war developments in education would be profound and lasting. Their gymnasia and practical rooms, their large gardens and proper provision for the care of livestock enabled them to cater adequately for a wide range of interests. In them the pupils could reveal aptitudes that would greatly assist teachers in helping individual pupils.

The youth movement was now receiving detailed attention and steady expansion might confidently be expected.

In conclusion, Mr. Ede said he had been cheered by the resolute determination with which the Welsh Authorities had grappled with their war-time difficulties. These were being steadily surmounted and at the same time administrators were on the alert for any twist of circumstance which might arise in the present uncertain times. Complacency did not exist. In every area he had found those in charge of the public education service keenly alive to the necessity of constant action to deal with large and small problems in the solution of which there were no precedents to guide them but which could be handled by the application of experienced common sense.

Education in H.M. Forces.—The Central Advisory Council for Adult Education in H.M. Forces has now issued its first statistical report. It covers the period from October 1, 1940, to March 31, 1941, and is based on reports received from twenty-one of the twenty-three Regional Committees. During the six months under review 10,146 single lectures, 670 short courses of three to six meetings, 1,151 classes usually ranging from six to fifteen meetings, and 2,134 informal activities are known to have been arranged through the agency of Regional Committees. Informal activities include debates, play-reading, educational film shows, art exhibitions, and practical guidance for gardening, hobbies, &c. Regional Committees have given advice to men accepted as members of air crews and placed on deferred service, and many of them have been put into touch with volunteers competent and willing to give postal or personal coaching. The "lone intellectual" in all branches of the Services has been helped by general advisory services. The total number of civilians registered on Regional panels is 3,260, of whom 2,938 have been employed. Local education authorities, voluntary organizations, and libraries have co-operated with the Regional Committees.

The Air Training Corps.—We published in our April 1941 issue an article on "The Air Training Corps" by Mr. Wolfenden, the Director of Pre-entry Training. Short courses have now been established at a number of universities for young men who wish to serve as pilots and observers in the Royal Air Force and are likely to be suitable for commissioned rank, and the first batch of students are already at work. Another group of young men is offered the opportunity of taking up these R.A.F. 'godfather' courses in October next, and nominations by headmasters should be received at the Air Ministry by July 20. The men in training take a several months' course of instruction in service subjects as members of the University Air Squadron, and a university course in general subjects in which mathematics, mechanics, and physics are compulsory, and either electricity and magnetism, engineering, meteorology, or navigation must be taken as a principal optional subject. Candidates must be between the ages of 17 and 18·8 on September 1, 1941, and must hold a school leaving certificate or its equivalent, and must be nominated by their present or former headmasters; selected candidates will not normally be sent on a course before reaching the age of 17·9. During the course they will wear uniform when on parade with the university air squadron. The entire expenses of tuition, board and lodging are met by the Air Ministry. The qualities required are good physique, intelligence, initiative, power of leadership, and keenness to fly.

Youth and the Navy.—The Admiralty has issued particulars of a scheme, to be known as the "Y Scheme of Entry", whereby young men of 17 and over, even if still at school, may volunteer to enter the Navy, either in the seaman branch or the Fleet Air Arm. The scheme will give to young men the same advantage in entering the Navy as the Junior Training Corps gives to those entering the Army, or the Air Training Corps to those entering the Air Force. Full particulars of the scheme are to be obtained from any combined recruiting centre.

Carnegie United Kingdom Trust.—The main allocations for 1936–40 were for Land Settlement, Social Service, Music and Drama, Adult Education, Museums and Libraries. Lord Lothian's gift of Newbattle Abbey has been adapted and equipped as a residential college for Adult Education at a cost of £18,000 to the Trust. Four special inquiries have been initiated into the problems of young people between the ages of 18 and 25. An emergency grant of

(*Continued on page 314*)

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THE PROVISION OF VERNACULAR LITERATURE FOR AFRICA. *By Ida C. Ward.*

SURVEY OF EDUCATION IN CYPRUS.

NOTES.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION IN THE COLONIES.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES.

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W. A. FLEMING, *Secretary to the University.*

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£5,000 was made to the British Association of Residential Settlements to enable intensified work to be done under war conditions. Grants for 1941 include Central Libraries, £8,000; National Council of Social Service, £5,000; Land Settlement, £3,500; Aid to Music, £22,000 and to Drama, £1,000; Youth Services, £20,000. The grants paid during the period 1914–40 amount to £3,102,801.

More Books Wanted.—In our April number we included a reference to the booklet issued by the National Book Council entitled *The Need for More School Books*. John Masefield says that "the sum spent on running the war for half a day would endow every school library in the land with a wealth of books beyond our dreams and would bear interest in improved intelligence through the next generation." We want more books for schools, more books for the fighting services, more books for the civilian seeking a way of temporary escape from manifold worries, more books for reading-rooms in rest centres and in shelters. Many useful lists have already been published by the Council, and others are in preparation. One just issued deserves special attention. It is called *The English Classics*. It gives the titles and short descriptions of nearly 2,000 book (including a number of translations of foreign books) published in the four main series—Collins, Everyman, Nelson and World's Classics. None of the books costs more than 2s. 6d. It is surely one of the most helpful guides to reading ever published. It can be obtained from the National Book Council, 3 Henrietta Street, London, W.C. 2. We are glad to note that the children are not forgotten, for the Council's Book List No. 23 bears the title *Books for Young People* (*Four to Fourteen*). This list is a complete and highly competent revision of the previous catalogue of the same title. From picture-books and stories to be read to children who cannot yet read we pass to a section for children who have just learnt to read, then to story books for boys and girls of 8 to 11 years, and finally to lists for boys and girls of 12 to 14. These last include stories, history, lives of famous people, travel, natural history, hobbies, and amusements, sports and games, plays to act, and so on. The list costs a shilling, post free.

The Birthday Honours.—In the Birthday Honours List we welcome the barony conferred on Prof. Lindemann, Professor of Experimental Philosophy at Oxford, who was last year appointed personal assistant to the Prime Minister. Colonel Le Breton, chairman of the Dorset Education Committee, Prof. Stopford, Vice-Chancellor of Manchester University, and Mr. R. S. Wood, deputy-secretary, Board of Education, receive knighthoods, and Mr. J. M. Thomson, secretary of the Scottish Education Department, the C.B. Dr. J. A. Glover, lately Senior Medical Officer, Board of Education; Mr. P. R. Morris, Director of Education, Kent; and Prof. W. Rennie, Professor of Greek at Glasgow University receive the C.B.E. We are glad to note that among teachers honoured are two Headmasters and two Headmistresses of Central or Senior Schools.

British Council's New Chairman.—The Rt. Hon. Sir Malcolm Robertson, G.C.M.G., K.B.E., M.P., has been appointed Chairman of the British Council in succession to the late Lord Lloyd. Sir Malcolm, who is M.P. for the Mitcham Division of Surrey, entered the Foreign Office in 1898 and has served in the Diplomatic Service in Berlin, Peking, Madrid, Bucharest, Montevideo, Rio de Janeiro, Washington, the Hague, the Rhineland, Tangier, and in Buenos Aires, where he was British Ambassador from 1927–29. Sir Malcolm has recently carried out an investigation on behalf of H.M. Government into the organization and personnel of the Foreign Office, and has submitted a valuable report, which is the basis of the important Foreign Office reorganization announced recently by Mr. Eden.

Courses on American History.—The Board of Education are impressed with the fact that British children are much less well informed about the history, life, and achievements of the United States of America than are American children about the history, life, and achievements of Great Britain. Accordingly, the Board of Education are arranging a number of short courses on the United States of America, their past history and current problems, for teachers in all types of schools. The lecturers at the courses will include Americans of distinction as well as British subjects with wide and recent experience of the United States. Six such courses, each of four or five days' duration, have already been arranged and will be held in London, Oxford, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Leeds, Exeter, and Aberystwyth between the end of July and the beginning of September. Further courses will be arranged later in the year for other parts of the country.

Living in Cities.—An exhibition of town planning has been designed and organized for the 1940 Council, which is a group of specialists working to promote the planning of social environment on a national scale. The designer is Ralph Tubbs, A.R.I.B.A., a member of the Royal Institute of British Architects' Reconstruction Committee and Exhibition Committee, and also secretary of the MARS (Modern Architectural Research) Group. The exhibition is circulated by the Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts, through the British Institute of Adult Education. Mounted on 26 linen screens, plus 4 transparencies, the material can be either displayed on walls, requiring 160 linear feet of hanging space, or fastened to wooden screens which are available on loan. The transparencies require two floodlights or high-powered lamps. The exhibition may be borrowed for a fortnight, and borrowers are asked to pay £5 5s. towards the cost of transport, posters, hanging of exhibition, and fee for one public lecture. All inquiries regarding the exhibition should be addressed to the Secretary, British Institute of Adult Education, 29 Tavistock Square, London, W.C. 1.

Course in Divinity.—Mr. R. B. Henderson, Reader in Religious Education in the University of Oxford, will conduct a course in Divinity for schoolmasters in Oxford during the week beginning August 4. The cost will be £3 10s., or 5s. for people who provide their own accommodation. Application for particulars should be made to Mr. R. B. Henderson, New College, Oxford.

Courses for Youth Leaders.—Two courses for youth leaders have been organized by the West Riding Education Committee on behalf of the County Youth Committee, the first course from July 26 to August 1, and the second from August 2 to August 8. They will be held at the West Riding of Yorkshire Training College at Bingley. Application should be made to the Secretary of the County Youth Committee, County Hall, Wakefield, Yorks.

Courses in Dietetics.—King's College for Household and Social Science, c/o University College, Leicester, announce that the Course for the University of London Academic Post-graduate Diploma in Dietetics will be resumed in October, 1941. An intensive course in elementary Dietetics, under the direction of Professor Mottram, is being arranged from July 28 to August 8, 1941.

Travelling Scholarship to America. — Owing to Treasury restrictions, the English-Speaking Union are able to offer only one scholarship this year. This is the Walter Hines Page Travelling Scholarship, which enables a British woman teacher to visit the United States to study American educational methods. Applications should reach the Education Committee by July 12, 1941. The address is The English-Speaking Union, Dartmouth House, 37 Charles Street, Berkeley Square, London, W. 1.

The House of Cassell.—Messrs. Cassell & Co., Ltd., regret to announce the destruction of their historic premises in La Belle Sauvage, in the City of London. Full stocks of books are available, however, and inquiries will receive immediate attention at the new London Offices. The address is: The Educational Dept., Cassell & Co., Ltd., 210 High Holborn, London, W.C. 1.

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

The August number will include:

THE SPENS REPORT AND THE WAR. By W. W. JOHNSON.

GERMANY AND THE SPENS REPORT. By STANLEY GODMAN.

POSTER ILLUSTRATION IN THE MUSIC LESSON. By R. R. DALE, formerly Senior Master at the Carlton High School, Bradford.

A PLEA FOR MUSIC IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS. By D. N. BLASDALE.

RESEARCH AND SCHOOL WORK. IV.—EXPRESSION IN ORAL FORM. By Dr. C. M. FLEMING, University of London Institute of Education.

THE RED CROSS AND THE SCHOOLS. By E. A. H. JAY, Organizing Secretary, Educational Section.

APPRENTICESHIP IN THE POST-WAR DEVELOPMENT. By Dr. A. H. STUART, Headmaster, Day Technical School, Hackney Technical Institute.

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NOTES AND COMMENTS on important educational topics.
CORRESPONDENCE.
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NEW BOOKS

RECENT BOOKS FOR COLONIAL SCHOOLS

By Dr. MARGARET READ, Acting Head of the Colonial Department, University of London Institute of Education

A SPEAKER on problems in colonial education recently startled his audience by telling them that in some colonies the text-books were fifty years behind those in Great Britain, and gave as an example one West Indian colony where he found the children in a geography class solemnly reading that the turnpike roads of England were in excellent condition at the present moment. The criticism implied was not only that the geography book was completely out of date but also that it was entirely foreign to the children, introducing them to the geography of a place they had never seen instead of beginning with their own surroundings. It does seem waste of time as well as educationally unsound for children to *begin* to learn from a book what they can never see with their eyes. There must be some correlation at the outset of school work between the known—the child's short experience of the world around him—and the unknown—that is, the letters, words, and sentences of the printed page. At a later stage however when the book is the known, that is, when the art of reading is acquired, it can itself be the link with the unknown, with other lands, distant peoples, new ideas and skills.

Happily the text-books at present in use in many colonies are no longer out of date and educationally unsound. Where money is available to purchase new books, publishers are offering considerable choice. It is becoming more and more the rule to base even primers and readers on the children's own area. Series of Malayan and Caribbean Readers have recently been published which carry out this principle. The *Malayan Readers*[1] written by H. R. Cheeseman and J. D. Joseph, are intended for the lower and middle classes of English schools in Malaya. The volumes are based on short stories or short informative articles illustrated by pictures, and followed by questions and answers practising the vocabulary used, which is given in tabular form as an appendix. The range of topics widens gradually from the school boy, the rickshaw, the train, the mosque, in Book I, to letter writing, folk tales, and exploring, in Book IV.

The *Caribbean Readers*,[2] whose authors are teachers in Jamaica, begin at the very beginning in two Introductory Books for children learning to read for the first time in what is to be their school language throughout, namely English as spoken in England. These are followed by Books I and II, which, to quote the preface, " touch the child's life at many angles ". The Teachers' Manuals accompanying the Readers point out that the stories are meant to bring the interest which a child shows in his out-of-school activities into his school work. These Manuals contain key vocabularies, explanation and enlargement of the story or article, and hints on phonic training. Although the home language of the West Indies is English, it is often of a kind which would not be easily recognizable as the spoken and written English of the British Isles. English teaching in the West Indies should therefore be regarded almost as teaching a foreign language. The sound educational principles of these Caribbean Readers are therefore apparent when they begin with the familiar vocabulary of the child's ordinary occupations and surroundings.

The Oxford University Press has brought out two *Story Readers* to go with Books II and IV of the *Oxford English Readers for Africa*. *Seven African Tales* (3d.) is based on folk tales from Central and East Africa, and is illustrated with black and white drawings which have more than a touch of humour in them. *Parable Plays* (8d.) are dramatized versions of the Bible parables of the Ten Virgins, the Debtors, the Talents, and the Good Samaritan. Both these Readers are suitable for class work and dramatic presentation, but they are not in the category of " something to read at home ". They should however appeal to African children who regard folk tales as essentially something to *tell*, with as much dramatic sense as possible, and who are brilliant at dramatizing Bible stories.

The *Regent Readers*[3] are intended, like the Caribbean Readers, for children whose speech is English, but they are not based on any particular area, and it is suggested that they can be used in either the West Indies or West Africa. Simon and Sally, in Book I, look African and are familiar with dogs and cats, hens and goats, and a house and school among palm trees and mangoes. The action in the Readers is based on the activities of the children, of their parents and teachers, and of the domestic animals. The approach is that of the sentence method, associated first with pictures and later with expression work.

Among books for teaching English to foreign children, one course[4] is based on ear-training, one[5] on pictures, and a third[6] is more advanced, adding another 500 words to the previous vocabulary used in Book I. *The Teaching of Oral English* by H. E. Palmer[7] is a guide to teachers on method, and is an exposition of the Oral Direct Method.

We pass apparently to less controversial ground when we leave English teaching for history and geography. Yet here it is useful to reflect on the place of history and geography teaching in the curriculum of primary schools; on the use of history and geography books as Readers; and on the relative value of giving children an intensive knowledge of their own area and country as compared with introducing them to the large world outside their ken through the medium of the printed page. I suggested at the beginning of this article that books might be at a later stage in school life the link between the known and the unknown. It is my experience in Africa that, once the struggle to read is overcome, books about familiar subjects and people and affairs cease to be as alluring as those which are a magic carpet flying to unknown lands and peoples, or as those which act as a searchlight on dimly understood events and ideas. Both these kinds of book—magic carpets and searchlights—are illustrated by the *Empire at Work* series[8] which I can imagine being seized upon eagerly by boys and young men in Africa who are thirsty for information of every kind. Book IV[9] of *Tropical Africa in World History* is a searchlight book, telling in Part I the story of the growth of modern industry and its effects on Africa, and in Part II the growth of the British Empire from 1783 to the years preceding the present war. The thumb-nail sketches of Stalin and Hitler and Mussolini will be widely appreciated

[1] **Nelson's Malayan Readers.** By H. R. Cheeseman and J. D. Joseph. (Book 1, 1s. 3d. Book 2, 1s. 4d. Book 3, 1s. 5d. Book 4, 1s. 6d. Look and Read. Part 2, 11d. Nelson.)

[2] **The Caribbean Readers.** By A. J. Newman and P. M. Sherlock. (Introductory Book 1, 1s. Introductory Book 2. 1s. 4d. Book 1, 1s. 6d. Book 2, 1s. 9d. Teachers' Manual for Introductory Books 1 and 2, 2s. 6d. Teachers' Manual for Books 1 and 2, 1s. net. Ginn.)

[3] **Regent Readers for Young Children.** By K. B. Coope. (Introductory Book, 4d. Three Packets of Picture Cards for Beginners, 3d. each. Book 1, 5d. Book 2, 6d. Book 3, 8d. Teacher's Book, 1s. 6d. United Society for Christian Literature.)

[4] **An English Course for Foreign Children.** By I. Morris. Book 1, Alternative Edition. (1s. 6d. Macmillan.)

[5] **English for Foreigners.** By J. Caro. (5s. net. Hirschfeld.)

[6] **Essential English for Foreign Students.** By C. E. Eckersley. Book 2. (3s. Longmans.)

[7] **The Teaching of Oral English.** By Dr. H. E. Palmer. (2s. Longmans.)

[8] **The Empire at Work.** 1: Cocoa and Chocolate. By P. Redmayne and T. Maull. (9d.) 2: Rubber and its Many Uses. By H. McKay. (10d.) 3: Our Letters in the Post. By G. A. Campbell. (9d.) 4: The Story of Gold. By Dr. M. Burr. (10d.) (Oxford University Press.)

[9] **Tropical Africa in World History.** Edited by T. R. Batten. Book 4: The Modern World. (2s. 6d. Oxford University Press.)

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as helping to illuminate present-day war news. The *West Indian Histories*[10] in theory go back to the principle " start near at home ". In practice, Book I starts off with an attempt to explain history, time, and space—a somewhat difficult approach for the middle standards. We then jump to the white man and his arrival in the west, pass through the slave days and abolition of the slave trade, and end up with an account of Crown Colony government—and one wonders what idea the twelve-year-old has of ' history '. Book II introduces migrations and discoveries, and skips from prehistoric man to the colonial struggles of the Spanish, Dutch, French, and English. Book III covers West Indian history from 1600 to 1900. The chief omission seems to be any introduction to British history which might show West Indian children the roots from which so many of their present-day institutions spring.

Text-books and reading-books about science should be, and generally are, searchlight books. The Oxford University Press has recently published two series, one simple the other more advanced. In *Beasts and Birds of Africa*[11] youngsters will be interested to see if ' book ' knows as much as they do about wild life. In any case they will, when reading it, be making valuable links between ' book ' and the world around them, and the same is true in *The Plague of Locusts.*[11] *General Science for Colonial Schools*[12] is a regular text-book written by a science master in Malaya, introducing elementary chemistry, physics, and biology. It is very well illustrated, and should help especially those who have to find and prepare their own specimens and apparatus.

A simpler science book for use in class-rooms has been published by the United Society for Christian Literature.[13] It is intended to form the basis of future work in science, geography, and hygiene, and has useful illustrations and sketches of simple apparatus. The same publishers have put out a book on *Personal Hygiene for Elementary Schools in Africa.*[14] The writer, who has had long experience of teaching Africans, has attempted a new approach to hygiene teaching—not through impersonal scientific cause and effect, but through the personal importance of each individual and the care of his body on scientific lines.

Publishers are just beginning to realize that in Africa is an immense potential market for books, hardly touched as yet except in a few of the larger centres, and even there the range of books available is not nearly wide enough. Two new lines of approach in African reading material are evident in the series under review. One is a series of small books on *How to do it*[15] costing only a few pence. *Writing Letters in English, The Bicycle, Bees and how to handle them,* are the first three titles. They are admirably illustrated and simple in their vocabulary, and should appeal directly to the African's ambition to *know.* A more advanced series on *African Welfare*[16] has two volumes published, on *The Passing of Polygamy* and *Water and the Land.* In the first, modern marital and sexual relations are very frankly discussed.

[10] **West Indian Histories.** By E. W. DANIEL. Book 1 : Pictures of the Past. (2s.) Book 2 : Migration and Discoveries. (2s. 2d.) Book 3 : Story of the West Indian Colonies. (2s. 10d.) (Nelson.)

[11] **Simple Science in Simple English.** 1 : Beasts and Birds of Africa. By H. W. D. LONGDEN. (1s.) 2 : The Plague of Locusts. By Dr. M. BURR. (8d.) (Oxford University Press.)

[12] **General Science for Colonial Schools.** By F. DANIEL. (Book 1, 2s. 6d. Book 2, 3s. Oxford University Press.)

[13] **Elementary Natural Science.** By R. J. SEAL. (1s. 3d. net. United Society for Christian Literature.)

[14] **Personal Hygiene for Elementary Schools in Africa.** By the Rev. G. E. P. BRODERICK. (8d. net. United Society for Christian Literature.)

[15] **The ' How to do it ' Books.** 1. The Bicycle. By F. B. MACRAE. 2. Writing Letters in English. By G. A. GOLLOCK. 3. Bees and how to handle them. By F. B. MACRAE. (1 and 2, 4d. net each. 3, 8d. net. United Society for Christian Literature.)

[16] **African Welfare.** 1 : The Passing of Polygamy : a Discussion of Marriage and of Sex for African Christians. By H. C. TROWELL. (1s. 6d. net.) 2 : Water and the Land. By J. B. CLEMENTS and P. TOPHAM. (1s.) (Oxford University Press.)

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VOL. XIII NO. 3 MARCH 1941

THE INDIAN PUBLIC SCHOOL. IV. The Training of the Emotions. By F. G. Pearce, B.A.
BASIC EDUCATION. By J. C. Powell-Price, M.A.
THE LABOUR UNIT SCHEME. By K. L. Shrimali, M.A., B.T.
HOME-WORK. By L. B. Harolikar, M.A., B.T.
THE METRICAL STRUCTURE OF ENGLISH VERSE. By Henry Martin, M.A., O.B.E.
THE ADJUSTMENT OF THE SCHOOL TO THE CHILD. By L. P. Bharadwaj, B.A.
THE PLACE OF RELIGION IN EDUCATION. By J. B. Freeman, M.A., L.T., Ph.D., D.D.
CORRESPONDENCE BOOK REVIEWS

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The second is an introduction to the problem of erosion and how to combat it. It is possibly rather ambitious for a small volume, as it aims at being both scientific and practical. If it is to be read in the class-room it should perhaps have dealt more with scientific principles. If it is intended for farmers and cultivators it needs to be more practical. But the authors, from their long experience of struggling to preserve land and forests from misuse, certainly succeed in emphasizing the dangers of neglect.

Hanahela[17] with its humorous illustrations might almost be an African version of Mr. F. L. Brayne's *Socrates in an Indian Village*. It ought to achieve what is its aim, namely to persuade African villagers to use such knowledge as we can put at their disposal to preserve their land, crops, and herds, without breaking the vital continuity of tribal life. It is just questionable, however, how much the humour in the drawings will appeal to Africans. They might think they were being laughed *at*, which would be fatal.

Two books published by the United Society for Christian Literature are designed specially for teachers. One is a *Guide Book for African Teachers*[18] written by the Director of Education in Bechuanaland, full of practical suggestions for intending teachers. The other is a series of readings for moral instruction periods in schools.[19] The African teacher needs so much help in his gargantuan task that these two volumes will be specially welcome. A small book on *First Aid Supplies*[20] will also be useful for the teacher who very often has to use what little knowledge he has in first aid in remote areas.

It is fitting to end this article with a reference to stories from the Life of Dr. Aggrey[21] who stands unchallenged as one of Africa's greatest Africans. The danger, which Dr. Aggrey saw and expressed so vividly in many of his talks, was that Africans should tumble headlong into the flood of twentieth century learning, and lose their heritage as Africans, because it was not written in books nor built in monuments. Europeans in the early years of schools in Africa were so convinced that they had all the light and that Africans sat in darkness that the inherited wisdom of the tribes and their elders was in danger of disappearing. Now, fortunately, political theory in the form of Indirect Rule, and educational theory in the form of Begin-where-you-are, join hands in asserting that Africans need not, and should not, be torn from their tribal heritage. But the demands of modern life are inexorable, and Africans must have the modern skills to be learned from books and class-rooms and laboratories, if they are not to be left hopelessly behind in the race. The problems of education in Africa claim the best thought and skill that the West can give them, and the day is already approaching when Africans, spurred on by the example of Dr. Aggrey, can give their contribution to the study and solution of these problems.

On the whole the searchlight of educational research and method has been turned more fully on African schools, perhaps because they were the last to start and the youngest child in the family is always pampered. But other spheres of colonial education are also ripe for overhauling, and the publication of one new series of text-books after another is a sure sign of awakening interest in reform. The day may be approaching when some comparative methods may be used in research in colonial education, when for example knowledge about the relation between higher and technical education in Malaya may assist in solving the same kind of problems in the West Indies and West Africa. Perhaps it is not too much to hope for that in these comparisons between policy and practice in different British colonies, some attention may be paid to educational methods in other than British colonies, where the Dutch and the French, among others, have much to teach us. One of the most encouraging signs for the future is the keen interest shown by younger educationists in British colonies in the work of other nations, who share the task which we have taken upon ourselves of helping the more ' backward ' peoples to take their place in the modern world.

[17] **Hanahela.** By A. T. CULWICK. (8d. net. United Society for Christian Literature.)

[18] **A Guide Book for African Teachers.** By H. J. E. DUMBRELL. (2s. net. United Society for Christian Literature.)

[19] **Character-Building : a Series of Readings for Moral Instruction Periods.** By J. H. L. BURNS. (9d. net. United Society for Christian Literature.)

[20] **First Aid Supplies : How to prepare for Accidents and Tropical Diseases.** By K. W. TODD. (1s. 6d. net. United Society for Christian Literature.)

[21] **A Leader of Africa : Stories from the Life of James Emman Kwegyir Aggrey.** Retold by W. M. A. JONES. (1s. Harrap.)

THE NEW TESTAMENT IN BASIC ENGLISH

By Dr. BASIL YEAXLEE, Reader in Educational Psychology, Oxford University

A NEW translation of the Bible into our own tongue must be judged by its purpose. It may, for example, be an effort to provide a standard version in language more readily understood than Elizabethan English is by most people to-day. Or the first consideration in preparing it may be a precise accuracy in rendering the original, with only secondary regard to beauty of form. But *The New Testament in Basic English** has still a third, and hitherto unexampled, characteristic. Aiming also at simplicity of phrasing and thoroughness of scholarship, it is deliberately restricted in vocabulary to the 850 words used in ' Basic ', together with an additional 100 required in poetry and a further 50 regarded as essentially ' biblical '. It represents ten years' work on the part of a committee directed by Prof. S. H. Hooke, and has been submitted to the scrutiny of another group of scholars formed by the syndics of the Cambridge University Press.

Everything depends upon the reason for this restriction. Basic English, wrought out by the genius of Mr. C. K. Ogden, of Cambridge, and his Orthological Institute, is intended to be a medium by which people all over the world, possessing but little knowledge of the language, may have access to the more important fruits of our contemporary science and literature, philosophy and art, presented in this simplified way. But those responsible for the introduction of it believe that the great classics of our tradition may also be made available thus to those who otherwise might never become acquainted with them at first hand. Of course the Bible must be included, though the compression of it into this pattern of speech must needs be the most ambitious and difficult task of all for translators. It is true that the Authorized Version owes much to the dignity and rhythm of the Elizabethans, independently of the substance contained in the Hebrew and Greek sources, and this new translation is made direct from those sources themselves, so that there is some ground for maintaining that nothing need be lost. Yet religion, however deeply logical and eminently practical, has also an intrinsically emotional quality. It deals with the beautiful, as well as with the true and the good. It is concerned with the sublime at the same time as with the simple. So the question in this case is how far vocabulary can be restricted, and therefore directness of expression limited, without affecting that part of the meaning which lies in its music.

The translators have made a fine attempt. Here and there they have given us a fresh gem—as for example " love's ways are ever fair " in I Cor. xiii. Some passages are not only more intelligible than in either the Authorized or the Revised Version but have a sustained elevation of style which matches the inspiration of the early writer. Illustrations may be found in such magnificent and therefore testing verses as those which in Gal. v. describe the fruits of the Spirit, or, in Eph. ii., unity in the Spirit. So again the familiar words in I Cor. x. about things lawful and

* **The New Testament in Basic English :** a New Translation. Cambridge University Press in association with Evans Brothers, Ltd. Pocket Edition, 3s. Library Edition, 8s. 6d.

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expedient become in Basic " We are free to do all things, but there are things which it is not wise to do ". The greater part of Philemon is beautifully phrased, conveying the very essence of Paul's delicately made claim and admonition. In I Cor. xv. his noble reply to questions concerning the resurrection body certainly is not less fine in the dress here given it. Even such pregnant sayings as John iii. 16 (" For God had such love for the world that He gave his only Son, so that whoever has faith in Him may not come to destruction but have eternal life ") and Mark x. 45 (" For truly the Son of Man did not come to have servants, but to be a servant, and to give His life for the salvation of great numbers of men ") retain their deep significance.

But the ending of this last typifies a weakness in the instrument which the ingenuity and devotion of the translators cannot overcome. ' Many ' is not among the words selected for the Basic vocabulary. A vapid and commonplace circumlocution is the result. Indeed this unnecessary multiplication of words and loss of point are inescapable, because the makers of Basic eschew all but a very few verbs. They therefore cannot say " Ask and it shall be given you ", but only " Make a request and it will be answered ". The dramatic touch in the story of Peter's denial is ruined when we read " A cock gave its cry "—and the same is true regarding the vehemence of the crowd at the trial of Jesus : " They gave a loud cry, Not this man . . . " The encouragement given to Thomas after the Resurrection appears thus, " Be no longer in doubt but have belief ". Still worse is the rendering of the command to Saul at his conversion : " Get up and have baptism ", or the rendering of " It is hard for thee to kick against the goad ", which becomes " It is hard for you to go against the impulse which is driving you ". To speak of " a greater and better tent not made with hands " (Heb. ix. 11) is to do violence to something more than euphony. ' Will ' serves throughout the purpose of ' shall ', which is not only confusing but at times ambiguous. There is a transformation of concrete into abstract which is of doubtful legitimacy, as when " to be saved " becomes " to have salvation ". Is " to have knowledge of God " the same thing as " to know God " ? Can Paul have meant in Rom. ii. 17 what is suggested by the Basic translation : " You . . . who have the name of Jew . . . and take pride in God, and have knowledge of His desires " ?

In the Preface there is a sincere disclaimer of any wish to replace the Authorized Version, but that Basic English, with 850 words, is able to give the sense of *anything* which may be said in English is too great a claim. If words of action so vital to the Gospel as love, believe, forgive, save, cannot be used as verbs, they lose something of both their force and their meaning. " Having forgiveness for one another, even as God in Christ had forgiveness for you " is altogether lame.

Yet teachers should most certainly possess and use this beautifully produced book. The cost is exceedingly small, and the profit to those who ponder on many of the renderings is great.

SOIL AND MANURES

By MARY K. HESLOP

THOUGH primarily of use to students of agricultural science, this book[1] should find a place on the shelves of all school and college libraries, because of the number and intricacy of the contacts it establishes, the abundance of scientific facts it collects and presents, and the importance of the theme it treats. Part I, an account of the soil, should interest all students of botany, biology, and chemistry, while chapters IV to VI inclusive in Part I, and chapters V and VI in Part II, " The Control of the Soil ", deal so intimately with the climate, relief, and geology of the British Isles as to be invaluable to the student of geography. Nor is the lay reader's outlook forgotten, for the book deals very clearly with some of those problems which, while they affect—and, at times, afflict—the man in the street, are said to be so completely outside his comprehension that his views receive scant attention. Let him read in chapter IV of the effect of climate on the soil and on fertility, and he will see how delicate is the balance between " too little ", " enough ", and " too much ", both of those uncontrollable factors of weather, temperature, rain, frost, drought, and the like, and of the more controllable means by which man is trying to gain mastery over the effects of these variables, and he will inevitably realize how protectively the farmer's judgment, experience and courage commute and modify the harsh processes of Nature and adjust them to the needs of his crops and stock. After two very severe winters, it is consoling to read :

" Under water famine, under snow food.
A snow year is a rich year."

Snow, it seems, keeps in cold storage the plant foods accumulated during summer, so that they are available when needed the following spring, while the rain of the mild wet winters to which we are more accustomed washes away the plant foods from the soil, so that the plants start with rather a poor food supply.

Warm, dry summers are as desirable as cold winters with frost and snow, and the discussion of the climatic vagaries given on pages 70 to 80 emphasizes the meaning of " changeable weather " to the farmer !

The book bears the marks of deep intimacy with its topic. Under the heading of " Farming on the Loam " a very clear account is given of how the four-course rotation, which depends on the root crop for an opportunity of " cleaning the land ", can dispense with that crop on light warm soils when the harvest comes early enough to allow tractors to work on the land and give it a short fallow ere the next cereal crop need be sown. The reader experiences a sense of elation as at the spectacle of a fine adjustment successfully achieved, though the next sentences (page 140) bring something of a chill with : " This system can be worked

[1] **A Student's Book on Soil and Manures.** By Sir E. J. RUSSELL. Third Edition, Revised and Rewritten. (8s. 6d. net. Cambridge University Press.)

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON

DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

Professor and Director of Laboratories : C. K. INGOLD, D.Sc., A.R.C.S., F.I.C., F.R.S.

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The School was fortunate in that its equipment escaped air-raid damage. This equipment has been transferred to Aberystwyth where an Undergraduate Course is offered, and facilities for Post-graduate and Research work are available. Short courses of glass-blowing and workshop practice can also be taken.

For further particulars apply: E. L. TANNER, Secretary, University College, London (Gower Street, W.C. 1)

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with a minimum of livestock and of horses, also of men. *It is the basis of mechanized farming.*" With a thought to our empty landscapes and our ever-increasing problem of unemployment, the reader may wonder if some adjustments are too fine to be stable, and reflect that there *are* alternatives.[2]

Part III, dealing with fertilizers, should prove of value not only to students but also to practical farmers. It is backed by all the authority that patient and long-continued research and the vast resources of a great experimental farming station can give, so the statement on page 211, that " there is no evidence that organic manures give vitamins or other subtle substances, and experiments so far made show that healthy crops can be grown with standard fertilizers only, and that their food value is the same as that of crops grown with farmyard manure ", rings out in refutation of such views as those voiced by Sir Albert Howard[3] that " We must desist from the injurious practice of poisoning our fields with artificial manures ! " Surely, it is among experts that the greatest divergence of opinion is found—fortunately, for therein lies a " head " of energy that will eventually solve the knottiest problems. And surely the way is prepared for such a desirable end by the handsome, far-sighted, and philosophical admission on page 151, in reference to scientific experiments generally, that " we see things ' as through a glass, darkly,' and can never be sure that our explanations are right ". From the author of a book that abounds in minute experimental proof wherever possible, this is indeed a " lively sacrifice " on the altar of truth.

[2] **Mother Earth.** By G. W. ROBINSON. " . . . to alternate long leys with arable intervals, to improve hill land, plant trees and thus conserve our soil and provide a safe alternative to mechanized farming."

[3] **Agriculture and the War.** By Sir ALBERT HOWARD. *Contemporary*, October, 1940.

THE SPOKEN WORD

By ELSIE FOGERTY, Principal, The Central School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art

SPEAKING to a group of students, eagerly studying the rhythmic speech of poetry, Richard Church in a beautiful address recently said :

> " We believe that from the divine anguish of these hours, now as always, poetry will come forth renewed."

Perhaps one sign of such impending renewal is found in the spate of books concerned with speech itself ; with the audible movements that give us the power of utterance, and with the incredible range and variety of the elements involved in the perfection of spoken sounds, in significance, and in form.

We have first an assembling of the delightful primers which Anne McAllister has from time to time published for the use of primary teachers in Scotland.[1] Gathered into one volume, the series shows the practical' common sense and good method which characterizes the earlier readers. The pages are not burdened with masses of repetitive exercises ; beautiful verse is not degraded to the level of " Examples for Practice " ; dialect is not invoked as an excuse for faulty speech, but, on the other hand, its splendid renewal value in bringing back vitality to tame and characterless talk is stressed. The vowels are arranged in their proper phonological order, and scientifically defined in the order of the Resonator Scale. The too linguistic complications of the phonetician are avoided. There is only one error here in the admission of a wide lip position on ' *EE* ' which injures the undertone of the vowel by tightening the throat in its reflex action.

The least satisfactory section is that on " Speech Therapy ". This wisely deals with the corrective and educational rather than the clinical and curative side of the work. The exploded theory of ' left hand ' stammering is given too great importance.

Under the able editorship of Mr. Compton, *Spoken English : its Practice in Schools and Training Colleges*[2] covers a wide field. The weakest section is the Introduction, which shows considerable ignorance of the history of modern methods of speech training, and actually dwells on minor, rather than on major considerations. All the sections are cleverly arranged to suggest practice in each successive grade. " In School from Five to Seven " (Margaret Chick), " Seven to Eleven " (Suzane Brodie), and " Fifteen to Leaving Age " (Joyce Welburn) are particularly good, while Harold Ripper introduces a rare and refreshing note of masculinity into the subject. The sections on " Training Colleges " and " The Voice in Speech and Song "—each the work of well-known experts—are excellent. Miss Thurburn's summary of the vocal element clearly defines the principles of phonology in the most explicit manner ; there is not a vague or superfluous sentence. Mr. Strong, who has dared to champion the principles of rhythmic diction in the most masterly way, recalls the brilliant days of the Oxford Festivals, and speaks of the value of verse—speaking both as a poet and as a listener.

The papers on the aesthetic side of the subject are naturally less conclusive. They evoke the controversial element of taste. But each is clear and individual. The book concludes with two excellent chapters on subnormal speech—the first covering the educational and corrective side of speech therapy, and the value it has in preventing the development of more serious functional trouble, the second dealing with the more serious and organic side, and compiled by the group of experts who have made the London speech therapy service the foremost in the world, Dr. E. J. Boome, Honor Baines, and Daisy Harries.

The existence of such a book, with its fine bibliography, should go far to place the whole subject on a reasonable and uncontroversial basis in the educational world.

A very different viewpoint marks the example of one of the Psyche Monographs, *Vowel Sounds in Poetry*.[3] The work is a miracle of typography ; one can hardly picture the labour expended on proof correction. Unfortunately it abounds in the mechanistic superstitions of the more self-sufficient phoneticians. This science has held immovably to its false classification of vowels, not by their resonant positions, but on the articulatory action of the tongue : ' OO ' becomes a back, and ' EE ' and ' i ' front vowels, exactly reversing the nature of the dominant resonation. Actually both terms are misleading, since it is the overtones and undertones in resonation which chiefly concern the student of voice and speech.

The final result of the whole work is rather that of a piano-tuner criticizing, say, Kreisler's performance of a violin concerto.

Daniel Jones has long ago pointed out that the ear method of research, properly applied, gives far better results than the mechanistic. Studio results are particularly untrustworthy, as the oscillograph diagrams recorded by the late J. F. Heard at Slough in the open air demonstrated. The contention in the present monograph, which never mentions rhyme, is that the inherent pitch quality of vowels determines not the assonant or linear structure of the line but the whole logical and emotional content, ' OO ' giving an invariable ' low mellow sound ', suggesting ' heavy, rounded bulging or billowy forms ', ' heavy scents ', &c., and ' i ' or ' EE ' a light, clear, distant sound. Thus words like ' deep ', ' cleave ', ' weep ', ' stream ', would invariably contradict their own significance ; Hamlet's first lines :

> " Seems, Madam ? nay it is. I know not seems !
> 'Tis not alone my inky cloak &c."

[1] **The Primary Teacher's Guide to Speech Training.** By Dr. ANNE H. MCALLISTER. (4s. 6d. net. University of London Press.)

[2] **Spoken English : its Practice in Schools and Training Colleges.** Edited by J. COMPTON. (6s. net. Methuen.)

[3] **Vowel Sounds in Poetry : their Music and Tone-Colour.** By M. M. MACDERMOTT. (Psyche Monographs, No. 13.) (5s. net. Kegan Paul.)

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would constitute a metrical error on Shakespeare's part, 'goose', 'snook', and 'spook' would teem with hidden significance, while 'goat', 'polo', and 'flow' would imply slow heavy movement. The innate onomatopoeia of words must remain a dangerous superstition, while 'Nightingale' and 'Rossignol' alike call up the "Bulbul's plaint" to different nations. The French tonic accent in verse would also destroy such a scheme at the very outset. The list of fifty-three vowels presupposes a phonetic industry which we had hardly suspected in our lyrists. The supreme form of English speech—dramatic verse—is not specifically referred to. In marked contrast the delightful *Key to Speech and Song*[4] by Barbara Storey and Elsie Barnard is written with simplicity and grasp of its whole subject. There is much new matter, including some good notes on clerical delivery, and a clear and impartial account of the disadvantages and advantages of broadcasting—a novel addition to the arts of speech and song. The vowel order is too alphabetical, but the main thesis of the book, "Spoken English and music are rhythmically very closely akin", has rarely been better or more comprehensively discussed.

The speech training of the deaf child has developed in an almost inconceivable way of recent years. It is now a commonplace that very few children are totally deaf; we here[5] have the case for training to preserve and stimulate residual hearing, by means of amplifiers and ear-training, most ably put. The book will be valuable to those who cannot obtain specialist or institutional training.

[4] **A Key to Speech and Song.** By Barbara Storey and Elsie Barnard. (5s. net. Blackie.)

[5] **Speech Training for the Deaf Child.** By Sylvian M. Martin. (Cloth, 5s. net. Paper, 3s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

English

The Two Englishes: being some Account of the Differences between the Spoken and the Written English Languages

By W. Barkley. (2s. 6d. net. Pitman.)

"Oure fadir that art in hevenes; halwid be thi name; thi kyngdom cumme to; be thi wille don as in *heven* and in *erthe*; gif to vs this day oure breed ouer other substaunce; and forgeue to vs our *dettis* as we forgeue to our *dettours*; and *leede* vs nat in to temptacioun but delyuere vs fro yuel."

"Thaer iz much that miet be dun with advantej in the reform ov speling az to the Ingglish langgwej; but the maen thing iz that whotever mae be propoezd shood be propoezd with the waet ov graet authorrity to bak it."

The first quotation is from the Wycliffe Bible of 1360, and the second is what, in reformed spelling, Mr. Gladstone said in 1874. Unfortunately, the immediate reaction of most people to an example of reformed spelling is hostile. It looks so absurd! Those who have patience to consider the question more carefully are often led to a different conclusion. Reformed spelling already has "a weight of great authority to back it". Many of our foremost scholars and philologists are among its advocates—among others, Prof. Gilbert Murray, Prof. Daniel Jones, Mr. Walter Ripman, Dr. Charles Darwin, Prof. C. E. Spearman, Mr. H. G. Wells, Dr. R. R. Marett, and the Archbishop of York.

This pamphlet sets out the arguments in favour of reform without overlooking the arguments on the other side. The arguments for reform are based upon four large topics—The United Nation; The Future of our Foreign Trade; The Machine of Imperial Government; The Education of our Children. The stock argument that reform would destroy the origin of our words is dealt with effectively. For example, to spell 'island' without the 's' (the 'n' apparently doesn't matter!) would be to destroy its connexion with the Latin *insula*. It so happens, however, that the English word is not derived from the Latin, but from a good old English word *eyland* (compare 'eyot', a small island). The fact that English spelling has so little connexion with spoken English wastes at least a year of school time, and is the one great obstacle to the establishment of English as a common world language. If we could only persuade ourselves to adopt a simply written form of English, we should abolish illiteracy almost overnight and remove the greatest difficulty which foreigners have to face in mastering the language. English is unrivalled in the simplicity of its grammar, but is handicapped by its spelling, which "is rather a disguise than a guide to its pronunciation".

We hope that this spirited attack upon our illogical and indefensible system of spelling will have a wide circulation, and that it will win for the cause of reform many new adherents.

Beowulf and the Finnesburg Fragment: a Translation into Modern English Prose

By Dr. J. R. Clark Hall. New Edition, Completely Revised, with Notes and an Introduction, by Professor C. L. Wrenn. (7s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

This is a new edition of Dr. Clark Hall's translation of Beowulf into modern prose. It should be of value not only to students of the text but also to the interested general reader. It is true, as Professor Tolkier points out in his important Preface, that no prose translation can adequately give the metre of Beowulf, nor render faithfully its "specially poetic qualities". Yet, without some such help as this translation provides, Beowulf must remain a closed book to the vast majority of English readers. Certainly this rendering has caught not merely the impressive matter of the poem but its dark and sinister atmosphere. The valuable notes and introduction are by Professor C. L. Wrenn.

Background to the News

This picture of native life in Syria was one of a series published in *The Listener* when Syria came prominently into the news. Week by week *The Listener* gives a background to the news by printing the most interesting broadcast talks, original articles and reviews, many of them lavishly illustrated. Your newsagent will get you a copy.

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Miscellany

Nursery Centre Equipment: an Economical Programme

By Dr. H. V. LANCHESTER. (9d. Pitman.)

This will prove a useful and attractive little book to those starting work in a Nursery Centre, and to parents, teachers, and others who want to make toys and simple furniture for small children. It sets out simply and clearly what is the minimum accommodation and equipment required for a Nursery Centre. It gives a list of essential tools, with a note of how to use each one, and shows where and how it may be possible to acquire scrap wood of all kinds for conversion into furniture and toys. The diagrammatic illustrations show how a cradle or a chair may be made from a crate, a bench or a stool from tea-boxes or butter-boxes, dolls' houses and cupboards from orange-boxes, and so on. They also show how to construct climbing horses, easels, sand-trays, and many another toy from oddments of wood from the builder's yard. The value of the pamphlet lies in its simplicity and in its economy of word and line.

1. Britain in Pictures

The Government of Britain. By G. M. YOUNG. English Music. By W. J. TURNER. British Sport. By E. PARKER. The English Poets. By Lord DAVID CECIL.

2. The British Commonwealth in Pictures

Australia. By A. HASKELL. East Africa. By ELSPETH HUXLEY.

3. The English Poets in Pictures

Byron. Shelley.

(Series 1 and 2, 3s. 6d. each volume. Series 3, 2s. 6d. each volume. Collins.)

The titles of the three series are a little misleading. The illustrations are certainly a notable feature, but the text is of first-class importance. In the first series, Mr. G. M. Young has concentrated into some forty pages an account of the development and working of the British constitution; one of our foremost musical critics has contributed an admirable account of the history of English music; a former Editor of *The Field* gives us the story of our chief English sports; and Lord David Cecil a characteristic and illuminating account of our English poets from Chaucer to T. S. Eliot. The quality both of text and of illustration is well maintained in Arnold Haskell's *Australia* and Elspeth Huxley's *East Africa* (Series 2). The first two volumes in Series 3—*Byron* and *Shelley*—contain a careful selection from the poets' works, with a short description of their lives, and an appreciation of their special qualities. The books in the three series are admirably produced, and should lead to a better understanding of the contribution of the British people to the life and thought of the world.

Ireland in the Age of Reform and Revolution: a Commentary on Anglo-Irish Relations and on Political Forces in Ireland, 1840–1921

By Dr. N. MANSERGH. (10s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

This is the third book that Dr. Mansergh has written concerning Ireland. Its two predecessors relate to present-day politics: they examine critically the constitutions under which Northern and Southern Ireland respectively are governed to-day. The volume before us is historical in character. It does not, indeed, attempt to tell the story of Anglo-Irish relations since 1840. Its aim is to show, first, how the Union of 1800 was viewed by observers at the beginning of Victoria's reign; secondly, what was the attitude of British statesmen to the Irish problem during the latter part of the nineteenth century; and, thirdly, how Irish intransigence and English lack of imagination led to the tragic rebellion of 1916, and so to the unsatisfactory compromise of 1921. It is a masterly and impressive volume which should be diligently studied by all serious politicians. The healing of the feud between English and Irish is one of the chief desiderata of modern politics.

Psychology

The Nineteen Forty Mental Measurements Yearbook

Edited by O. K. BUROS. ($6.00. 10 per cent discount on orders sent directly to the Mental Measurements Yearbook, 32 Lincoln Avenue, Highland Park, N.J., U.S.A.)

Research workers engaged in mental measurement may well be deeply indebted to Prof. Buros for this excellent bibliography and review of recently published test material. Its scope is wider than its title suggests. It contains critical evaluations of personality and achievement tests, attitude aptitude and vocational tests, and reviews of books upon allied topics.

The task of keeping abreast of the times in this fast-developing field is indeed a difficult one. The size of the book indicates the great wealth and variety of the material, and it is evidence, too, of the thorough, complete, and comprehensive nature of the information supplied. The classification of the tests, the index and page headings are designed to simplify reference, and the number system employed facilitates cross-reference to previous *Yearbooks*. The book is indispensable as a guide to the mental tester. This is its primary function. At the same time it tends to restrict the publication of tests which have been insufficiently standardized.

The imposing list of 250 co-operative reviewers includes the names of many well-known authorities and famous pioneers in mental measurement. The reviews are, in the main, frank opinions expressed by expert test-technicians, psychologists, and subject-matter specialists. The information supplied is of greatest value when more than one review is given for each test. A fair evaluation of a test may then be made, and the reviews themselves often gain an intrinsic importance when controversial issues are considered. The reviews of The Experimental Edition of Thurstone's *Tests for Primary Mental Abilities* are, for example, of great interest.

It is difficult to overestimate the value of this volume to research departments. Its use to teachers in England is, however, somewhat limited, for most of the more adequately reviewed tests are American publications, while many of the tests which are readily accessible are either merely listed or are accompanied by only one review. The fact remains that the editor has rendered a great service to the mental tester. The preparation of the volume has obviously entailed a tremendous amount of careful and painstaking work, and one has only praise and the highest admiration for the editor and the efficient way in which he has accomplished a difficult task.

Human Nature Writ Large: a Social Psychologic Survey and Western Anthropology

By F. CREEDY. (15s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

In this volume—the result of years of experience and careful thought—Mr. Creedy gives an interpretation of Western civilization which deserves attention in a period when so much of that civilization has been called in question. His central thesis is that our minds are dominated by mythologies (Nationalism, Finance, and so on) which have enormous (and in general unquestioned) influence on our thought and action. These mythologies Mr. Creedy analyses with independence, good humour, and irony; his chief method is to examine in detail current and generally accepted statements embodying or implying them, and he has no difficulty in showing how illogical and irrational these statements are. He goes deeply into the psychology of popular myth, and concludes the book with an experiment in the mathematical expression of ideas which he looks on as a contribution to our emancipation from the domination of current myths.

Mr. Creedy's main thesis bears directly upon education, as he fully understands; it certainly deserves the close attention of all who are giving serious thought to democratic education after the war.

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SCHOLARSHIPS

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WESTFIELD COLLEGE

(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

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Principal:
Mrs. J. L. STOCKS, B.Sc. (Econ.)

RESIDENTIAL College for 150 women which prepares for the Degrees of the University of London. Non-resident Students are also admitted. At the Scholarship Examination to be held in February, 1941, SCHOLARSHIPS from £100 to £30 will be awarded for CLASSICS, GERMAN, FRENCH, ENGLISH, HISTORY, BOTANY and MATHEMATICS.

Fees.—Residence, £90 a year. Tuition from 38 guineas a year.

For further particulars apply to:

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ALDENHAM SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys under 14 on May 1, on the results of an examination toward the end of May:

(*a*) An ALFRED SMITH SCHOLARSHIP of £80 a year.
(*b*) Three JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS, of £60 to £40 a year.
(*c*) Two or more EXHIBITIONS of about £30 a year.

INTERNAL SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys already in the School:

(*a*) Two SENIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 a year, open to boys not less than 15 and not more than 17 on May 1.
(*b*) Two JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 to £30 a year, open to all boys in the School.

LEAVING EXHIBITIONS. About three each year, from £80 downward, tenable for three years or more at the Universities.

The School Scholarships are tenable for the duration of the holder's school career.

The School Fees are £115 a year, with a Consolidated Fee of £5 a term to cover all necessary extras.

Further particulars may be had from the HEADMASTER, ALDENHAM SCHOOL, ELSTREE, HERTS.

BERKHAMSTED SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination will be held in June, 1941, for three Entrance Scholarships of the value of £60, and four or more Exhibitions of less amount.

Candidates must be under the age of 14 on June 1 immediately before the examination. The age of candidates will be taken into consideration in the examination.

Entries should be received by May 24. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

BEAUMONT COLLEGE

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS are awarded in March and June. Candidates must have taken previously the March or June Common Entrance Examination. A further Examination will be held at the College on March 28 and June 27. For further particulars apply the RECTOR, Beaumont College, Old Windsor, Berks.

BRIGHTON COLLEGE

AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

A number of Gill Memorial Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered each June to sons of Officers or Ex-Officers in H.M. Army. The highest of these awards will amount to half the total fees.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in June, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER, Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY

Carlyon Bay, South Cornwall

THREE Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

TWELVE to Fourteen King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

TWO Milner Memorial Scholarships value £100 per annum for five years, will be offered in June. The Milner Scholarship is open to sons of Colonial Civil Servants and others.

For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

(*a*) Six SCHOLARSHIPS (at least), Classical and Modern, varying from £100 to £50 per annum, according to merit and needs.

(*b*) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

THE LEYS SCHOOL, CAMBRIDGE

Temporarily removed to
THE ATHOLL PALACE HOTEL,
PITLOCHRY, PERTHSHIRE

THREE or four Open Foundation Scholarships of £100 a year, and six other Scholarships and Exhibitions of between £25 and £75 a year will be awarded in June, 1941, if suitable candidates of sufficient merit present themselves. Candidates must be under 14 on January 1, 1941. A large choice of subjects in the Final Examination is available, including Science, German, and Music. Scholarships and Exhibitions may in certain cases be increased by such an amount as the circumstances of the Scholar may require. Full particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER.

The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

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AUGUST 1, 1941

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

SOME little time ago, *The Times* published an article which started a vigorous correspondence, most of it over the names of well-known persons. The article, entitled "The Eclipse of the High-Highbrow", expressed strong approval of an attack by Lord Elton on that "weak and arrogant contempt for the common man", which has "tainted so much of the intellectualism of the past twenty years", in the arts and in literature. Both the highbrow and the person vaguely described as the common or average man have had their defenders. No one of the controversialists has, so far as we have observed, claimed a place among the lowbrows, but some seem proud to enrol themselves with Mr. J. A. Spender among the "middle-brows". On the one side of the dispute Sir Kenneth Clark, of the National Gallery, warns us against thinking that the average man is, or ever can become, the ultimate authority on artistic merit. On the other side Dr. Ernest Barker quotes Aristotle with telling effect. "The many", says the sage, "are the better judges both of works of music and of those of the poets; for some appreciate one part and some another, but all together appreciate all parts. Each individually may be a worse judge than the connoisseurs, but all as a body are either better or at any rate no worse. The banqueter will judge a feast better than the cook." Mr. George Sampson brands Sir Kenneth Clark's view as "an elementary heresy", and holds that the average man has always liked Shakespeare, whereas "the average highbrow is always trying vainly to boost the Congreves and the Wycherleys".

The Highbrow and the Common Man.

THE storm which is blowing up in the pages of *The Times Educational Supplement* between evolutionists and revolutionists appears to us to be largely one of words. Blind reliance upon traditional methods is an evil thing, and the inevitable reaction from it produces another evil thing—an attitude of mind which sees no good in the past and wishes to break completely with it. The roots of reform always lie in the past. As Croce says, "Only historical judgment liberates the spirit from the pressure of the past . . . it alone opens the way to the development of action". *The Times Educational Supplement* in its leading article, July 5, remarks that the full implication of educational reform cannot be worked out in the field of education as at present delimited, but admits that the working-out must start from there. The article demands that childhood and youth should be regarded as a unit, and that, until the age of citizenship is reached, boys and girls should remain under the aegis of the education service, which should have full responsibility for their welfare, education, and training—individual, vocational, and civic—until they reach the threshold of adult life. The last words contain an obvious exaggeration. The educationist shares and must share such responsibility with the parent and the employer. Apart from this, however, there is nothing really revolutionary in this demand. It is indeed implicit in the Education Act of 1918, now incorporated in the Act of 1921. There is little difference of opinion among educationists as to what is wanted, but, as *The Times Educational Supplement* says, "only the rarest courage and persistence will secure its fulfilment".

Evolution or Revolution.

REFORMERS, however, like other folk, vary in sense and in sensibility. At one extreme are the denizens of 'cloud-cuckoo land' who voice their demands without the least regard to their practicability. They are useful irritants but dangerous leaders. At the other extreme are those timid souls who shrink from making any demand to which serious opposition may be expected. These, too, are a danger. It is, however, an abuse of language to speak as though all evolutionists belonged to this category. *Media tutissimus ibis.* "Without eccentricity there would be no progress, and without centrality there would be no stability" (Lin Yung). Hitler expressed in *Mein Kampf* his contempt for the common man—a contempt which seems to be shared by some of our own educationists. Such people should read or re-read F. H. Bradley's *Appearance and Reality*

Progress and Stability.

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In a democracy like ours it is public opinion which will ultimately determine whether a programme of reform will be carried into effect. Our system of education —neither 'public' nor 'national' as yet—has many weaknesses, but, especially during the last 20 years, it has been immensely strengthened and improved. We have now an unequalled opportunity of remedying these weaknesses and so making a great contribution to a real New Order.

Theory and Practice.

WHAT is important is that, as Professor Clarke urges, we shall make an honest effort to realize the full implication of the ideas implicit in the reforms which we advocate. It is easy to give glib adherence to such phrases as "equality of opportunity" and "equality of status" without appreciating the changes which their application must involve in the structures of our educational system and our social life. In our national life we denounce the love of money as the root of all evil and yet accept wealth as the criterion of individual and national prosperity. There is a similar discrepancy between our educational theory and our educational practice; and, unless we are prepared to make a determined effort to bridge this gap, we had better abandon our fine phrases altogether. The problem is whether we can bring to our faith in our democratic ideals a devotion, a singleness of purpose equal to that which the Russian, the German, the Italian brings to his conception of the state and of society, and of the place which education should occupy in that conception —whether we can combine with their "unflinching rationality" a full devotion in act as well as in thought, in practice as well as in theory, to our educational ideals.

A Springboard?

WE quoted in the June number Sir Frederick Mander's reference to Plato's saying that of all the great offices of state that of the Minister of Education is the greatest. The office of President of the Board of Education appears to be regarded as a mere step in a political career. This is profoundly wrong. We shall not be content until we have a real Ministry of Education with a Minister whose status and salary are equal to those of any of his colleagues. We are sorry to lose Mr. Ramsbotham so soon, but give a hearty welcome to his successor, Mr. R. A. Butler. Mr. Butler is a Fellow of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, and took a first class in both the Modern Language Tripos and the Historical Tripos. He was President of the Union Society in 1924, Under-Secretary of State for India, 1932–37, Parliamentary Secretary to the Minister of Labour, 1937–38, and Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs since 1938.

Mr. Ramsbotham Speaks Out.

EDUCATIONISTS have every reason to be encouraged by the speeches which Mr. Ramsbotham has delivered to the Association of Education Committees and the National Association of Head Teachers. The plans for educational reform which the Board have prepared are to be regarded only as a basis for discussion, and no final decisions will be taken until teachers and administrators have been fully consulted. Education, he says, must keep in step with the needs of society. Our task is to rebuild and refashion, but we shall be wise if we avoid the temptation to reject and destroy our past traditions. We should reconsider the traditional secondary school curriculum. All post-primary schools should be of equal status and esteem, and in all schools conditions of buildings and teachers should be equally good and equally efficient. The leaving age should be raised to 15 without exemptions, and some financial help given to ease the burden upon parents. We must build up a system of education appropriate to the needs of young people between the age of leaving school and entering maturity, and in the centre of this system must be the day continuation school. The gateway to higher education is too narrow, and facilities vary greatly from area to area. Promising boys and girls must be enabled to pursue university studies regardless of the financial position of their parents. The training of teachers must be overhauled. These reforms, he said, will entail not only financial sacrifices, but also the sacrifice of vested ideas and vested interests.

Private Schools.

NOW that Mr. Chuter Ede is Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, we may recall the fact that, a little while ago, he asked a question in Parliament about the heads of a private school in Sussex who had been fined for cruelty to a 4-year-old pupil. Mr. Kenneth Lindsay said he had no information as to the educational qualifications, if any, possessed by these persons, that the school was not open to inspection, and that the Board had no power to forbid the opening, or to order the closure, of private schools. Mr. Ede then asked whether, in view of such cases, the Board would give active consideration to bringing into effect the recommendations of the Departmental Committee on Private Schools. (It will be remembered that Mr. Ede was Chairman of this Committee). The report was an agreed report, and eight years had elapsed since it was signed. Could not an agreed measure be passed through, in view of the growth of these schools since evacuation? Mr. Lindsay said he would take note of the request, but that anything effective would require legislation. Without wishing to hamper the Government in its main task, may we express the hope that Mr. Ede will be able to answer his own question before very long.

Wise Counsel on Religious Education.

AT the closing session of the recent Church Assembly, general approval was given to the statement issued in February by the Archbishops of Canterbury, York, and Wales. This statement, referred to in our April issue, was designed to meet what Dr. Temple called the extremely widespread ignorance about the essentials of Christian faith. We understand that this approval was endorsed by a conference representative of the Free Churches. We observe with deep satisfaction that the archbishops do not approve of the attempts made in certain quarters to throw upon the

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teachers all the blame for the alleged widespread ignorance of the meaning of the Christian religion. Dr. Temple remarked that far too much blame had been placed upon the schools and the teachers, and that it was in the period that followed school that the leakage and lapse took place. Still more emphatic were Dr. Lang's closing words. One hindrance to the co-operation of all teachers, he said, was that there still rankled in the minds of teachers the unwise and unfair language sometimes used in Church circles about the Christian teaching given in *provided schools. The Church would do well, he added, rather to recognize the excellent teaching that, in spite of limitations, was often given than to criticize its defects. The teachers could not overcome the indifference of the home or the gap in instruction which followed the school-leaving age. We will deal in our next number with the statement issued by the Christian Education Movement.

Parental Attitudes.

DR. LANG put one point very mildly when he spoke of " the indifference of the home ". We are far from claiming perfection for the teaching profession. All we ask is fair play, and we know of no more disheartening occupation than that of a teacher engaged in an uphill fight against bad home conditions. At a recent conference held in London of doctors, teachers, probation officers, and social workers, an experienced probation officer gave case after case of delinquency directly traceable to parental ignorance. " Parents ", she said, " fail to teach their children the difference between honesty and lying, they use bad language in their children's presence, they fail to keep promises made to them, and show preference for one child against the others. In some cases they do not even take the trouble to visit or write to their evacuated children, and this is as true of the well-off as of the poor." Another officer told of " intelligent sturdy children who, owing to the ignorant way in which their parents handle them, are now delinquents in the making ". We ourselves have direct evidence from an important reception area of the callous indifference of many parents to what happens to their evacuated children. Here is a problem to be faced and solved by the great army of worthy parents, led by social workers of all kinds, including both teachers and preachers. Looking round for scapegoats is a good deal worse than useless.

The Warwick School Judgment.

IN our May number we referred to the action in which the Headmaster of Warwick School was ordered to pay heavy damages to a schoolboy who, while with a school party on a farm, lost an eye owing to a clod of earth thrown by a schoolfellow. We observed that " In view of this judgment headmasters are not likely to show much enthusiasm in organizing parties for field work. No reasonable amount of supervision can prevent accidents of this sort and the question of liability in such circumstances needs further examination." We are very glad to learn that this decision has now been reversed in the Court of Appeal. Lord Justice Scott, in the course of the hearing, remarked that he thought that one great merit of our public school system was that boys learned to be dependent upon themselves and how to behave to one another. In pronouncing judgment he said, " The whole action is misconceived and ought never to have been brought." He further remarked " that the unfortunate headmaster was subjected to a long and (he thought) improper cross-examination, as though he were shirking responsibility and not answering with candour, when in truth he was unable to appreciate what he was supposed to have done wrong. . . . Mr. Bishop owed no duty to the boys to refuse to let them go to help the farmer in his need of labour without an under-master or an under-nurse for that matter in charge. The accident could have happened just as easily on a natural history expedition or any other country outing where the boys were regularly allowed to go without supervision. Indeed, it might have happened even if a master had gone, for he might have been temporarily absent and the two boys who quarrelled might have done so during his absence ". The result of the appeal will be received in the educational world with profound satisfaction.

The British Council.

THOSE of our readers whose acquaintance with the work of the British Council is imperfect will do well to consult the recently issued report for 1940–1941. The Council exists for the purpose of promoting a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the English language abroad, and developing closer cultural relations between the United Kingdom and other countries, for the purpose of benefiting the British Commonwealth of Nations. The Council's work is not merely a counter-stroke to enemy propaganda. Its aim is to create in countries overseas a basis of friendly knowledge and understanding of the people of this country, of their philosophy and way of life, which will lead to a sympathetic appreciation of British policy. The present report gives a detailed account of regional activities in the Middle East, all parts of Europe, Latin America, the Far East, the United States, and British Colonies and Mandated Territories. Among the methods adopted are the formation of British cultural centres abroad, the establishment of British schools, the encouragement of English studies in foreign schools and universities, bringing students from foreign countries to undertake courses here, and providing facilities for personal contact between British subjects living abroad and nationals of the countries in which they live. Moreover the Council has a Book Export Scheme; it is responsible for all British fine art exhibitions abroad of an official kind; it produces films and arranges lectures; and it maintains a channel of communication with the British Press and with the Press of other countries. All these receive full notice in the report, though the war has of course interfered with some of these activities, but the Report is an impressive record.

* The report of the Archbishop's speech in *The Times* says, " non-provided schools ". This is surely a mistake.

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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, *alumnus* of Harvard, has honoured the University of Oxford by accepting the highest degree, the Doctorate of Civil Law. The degree was conferred by Lord Halifax, Chancellor of the University and British Ambassador, at a special Convocation of Oxford University held at Harvard during its Beginning Exercises. President Roosevelt was unable to attend in person, but sent an inspiring message concluding with the declaration that citizens of the United States are born to freedom and are willing to fight to maintain freedom—preferring " to die on our feet than live on our knees ". These sentiments were also expressed in the diploma in Latin granting the degree. The diploma testified to the personal merits of President Roosevelt, who has heartened the defenders of liberty by lofty and inspiring eloquence and has contributed " in ever-increasing measure " material help to those who are fighting for freedom of worship, thought, and life. The University of Rochester, N.Y., has conferred the honorary degree of Doctor of Civil Law upon our own Prime Minister, and the University of Bristol a similar degree upon the American Ambassador. This academic *rapprochement* is an encouraging augury. There are many other activities in which the two great democratic communities should draw together in war and in peace.

President Roosevelt.

A REPORT is now available on the scheme for compulsory physical training at Birmingham University. Men students entering in October 1940 were obliged to take a course in physical education of two hours a week or to join the Senior Training Corps. Ninety-two chose the former and 144 the latter. Women students took a course of physical education. What the policeman says may not be evidence, but the Director of Physical Education is impressed by the results and looks forward to further growth. The training of leaders and teachers in physical education is a special task. Physical fitness is becoming increasingly difficult in our smoke-laden cities. A development of higher education under better physical conditions may reduce but will not remove the problem. Medical and technological education must continue in large cities. Statistical results in relation to growth and weight will in due course demonstrate the value of physical training. Reactions on intellectual work may be more difficult to assess. We congratulate Birmingham University on a pioneering effort of great significance.

Birmingham University.

TWO centenaries have been celebrated in our public schools—first, the foundation of Cheltenham College and, secondly, the famous cricket match at Rugby recorded in *Tom Brown's Schooldays*. Cheltenham's centenary is a proof that our public schools are not necessarily medieval foundations. From the first the college struck a modern note, its " modern or military and civil department " contributing to its fame and prosperity. At one time, there was a professor of Sanskrit and Hindustani ! The foundation was due not to a single pious founder, but to a proprietary of 650 shares, each share entitling the holder to nominate one pupil. Cheltenham College gave the inspiration to Dorothea Beale for the foundation of Cheltenham Ladies' College some twelve years later, also established on the basis of shares. The centenary of Cheltenham College was the occasion of an anonymous gift of 10,000 guineas from an Old Cheltonian, announced by the Headmaster, Mr. A. G. Elliot-Smith, on speech-day. This sum is some compensation for what the Headmaster described as hard knocks due to the war.

Centenaries.

WE seem to be settling down to a consistent terminology with regard to young people over 14 years of age. The 14–18 group are youths, and the 18–25 group are young adults. Of this we are reminded by two pamphlets that have reached us, one from the West Riding, and the other from South Wales, both of them taking one to the very heart of the matter. The quarterly bulletin issued by the West Riding Youth Committee (April–June 1941) begins with a summary of Mr. Ramsbotham's broadcast address on Youth Service, but then proceeds to give an account of work actually done, and of plans for the immediate future, under a variety of significant headings. The other pamphlet, entitled *The Young Adult in South Wales*, published at a shilling by the University of Wales Press Board, is a most illuminating report of a three years' study of the situation and experience of young men between the ages of 18 and 25 who, in the spring and summer of 1937, were to be found in the queues of Employment Exchanges in South Wales. The inquiry was made possible by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust. All parts of the report are valuable, though we may select for special mention the passages on the effect of unemployment upon personality, upon moral conditions, and upon attitudes towards religion and politics.

Youths and Young Adults.

NOTHING more important in connexion with the youth movement in Scotland has happened in recent months than the conference held at Aberdeen on Youth and Religion. We cannot recall an instance in which a conference on religion, attended by representatives of practically every denomination in Scotland, should have been not only sponsored but also organized in every detail by a State department, *i.e.* the Scottish Education Department. The main anxiety of the speakers was, clearly, to devise ways and means of getting at that large population of adolescents who are without any Church or similar connexion. In the Summer School for Leaders of Clubs and other organizations of a like kind which is being arranged by the Scottish Education Department at St. Andrews from August 4 to 16, one of the principal features of study will be the religious and ethical outlook which must accompany true citizenship. This course for leaders is devised on comprehensive lines and is essentially practical in its intent. The admirable work accomplished during the past year by the Scottish Education Department has gone far to dispel the doubts and suspicions that harassed the voluntary organizations in the early stages of the youth campaign.

Scottish Youth and Religion.

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THE SPENS REPORT AND THE WAR

By WILLIAM W. JOHNSON

THE Spens Report appears but darkly through the haze in which we are now enveloped. Much that was good, much that was ambitious, much that was even urgent in the recommendations made by the Spens Committee, must now be postponed indefinitely. While nations are at war, many forms of progress are retarded; and, while educational development is usually the first to suffer, it has in the present war been doubly hit by the migration of the children from their accustomed schools.

Obviously the letter of the Spens Report cannot be adopted until more settled times, yet it is not necessary that its spirit shall die. Indeed, in those areas in which a normal curriculum is impossible, owing to the Government scheme for evacuation, the following significant passage from the Report might well be remembered: "It has been represented to us that secondary education is still strongly influenced by the discredited conception of an all-round training of the faculties, and by the idea of a liberal education which corresponds neither to the circumstances of the pupils nor to the needs of modern civilization: that we think too much of education in terms of information and too little in terms of feeling and taste; that a university objective is tacitly assumed throughout the course; that the schools provide instruction in a number of subjects which are in danger of falling out of relation with one another; that the curriculum is too diffuse in some directions and too narrow in others, too rigid, and too much dictated by examination requirements; that too many subjects are carried up to the same level; that the time-table is overcrowded and congested, and leaves too little time to consider and discuss the wide implications of the subject-matter, with a consequent limitation of the ability to think; that there is a strong tendency to adjust the pupil to the curriculum rather than the curriculum to the needs and abilities of the pupil, and in particular that the needs of the less academic pupils receive inadequate attention; that there is a grave tendency to overwork and overstrain adolescent pupils, especially girls."

Many progressive teachers must have felt that the above criticisms of our system of post-primary education are justified. Is it too much to say that certain of these implied reforms are more easily introduced during the upheaval caused by war than in a period of protracted peace? Many schools that have been evacuated to reception areas are continuing work without their normal supply of books, equipment, and apparatus. That this is not necessarily a disadvantage was pointed out by the President of the Board even before war was declared. A more vital method of teaching, much more in touch with life itself, is possible when the traditional props are removed. But, in this event, a great deal of energy, effort, and deep thinking are demanded of the teacher.

Post-primary education has been and still is too academic: pupils are prepared for the university instead of for the university of life. Competition, the examination system, recent developments in educational theory and practice, and the speed of modern living, all tend to identify the secondary school with the door to the university. Ninety-nine out of every hundred pupils go elsewhere on leaving school, yet the ninety and nine are given the pre-university training required by the other one.

Our aim is to produce—so far as that is possible—a complete human being—one who has learned to live a full life; one who (whatever his station) knows how to grasp opportunities, how to use to equal advantage his hours of work and leisure, how to develop his personal gifts to the advantage of himself and the rest of the community; one who knows how to think for himself, forms his own opinions, and possesses a sense of responsibility. The idea that all this can be achieved by purely academic means still persists. The mistake lies not only in the secondary school but also throughout the whole system of education. Professor Jacks maintains that the university has usurped the function of the secondary school and neglects its own.

The old theory that education implies little more than adequate development of the intellect is hard to kill.

In our infant and junior schools, where there exists a delightful atmosphere of freedom, where the highest ideals are often put into practice, where are to be found our most skilful and successful teachers—here we find the nearest approach to true education. Here children begin to learn how to live happily and beautifully. For a time these delightful processes continue; and then the examination bugbear creeps in and plays havoc. By a system of cramming (surreptitious and otherwise) many of these innocents become "free-placers" ready to begin academic studies in earnest.

Such studies are dictated in the main by outside bodies whose function is to examine, not to educate. As their interests cannot lie in the needs of the individual schools, the schools themselves are often anxious to throw off the yoke. They cannot do so, and so the price paid is five years' hard labour for each pupil. From the victims' point of view, the School Certificate and the preparation for it have little that is thrilling or vital; the work is mainly bookish and theoretical. Pupils gifted with academic minds (possibly 20 per cent in the average school) may enjoy the prospect of taking the leaving certificate, but for the rest the joy of schooling lies in the "out-of-school" activities voluntarily organized by the teachers.

* * *

Between the ages of 11 and 13 the pupil is an excellent subject for mental and physical advancement: he is then able to withstand strain; he learns and memorizes with ease and celerity, and he uses his mental faculties to a remarkable degree; he is surprisingly susceptible, consciously and sub-consciously, to the power of suggestion. Nevertheless his whole outlook on life is narrow,

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and material in the extreme. At the age of 13—earlier, certainly, in girlhood—the familiar and striking changes, physical, mental, and emotional begin. School work becomes unstable; brilliant pupils fall from grace for weeks at a time; and disappointments are many. Undeserved punishments, given by ignorant or forgetful teachers, are not exceptional.

Hitherto our elementary school children have been thrown on their own resources at this delicate and dangerous period. Secondary pupils, on the other hand, enter the heavy shadow of the public examination. At a most critical time, therefore, both types of pupil encounter new and grave responsibilities. In neither case is due and sympathetic notice taken of the age of puberty. Instead of increasing our demands, we should rather relax them temporarily; or substitute for academic studies the training indicated by a knowledge of child psychology. Advanced educationists recommend delaying the first examination until the age of 18, and, where this has been tried, the results have been excellent.

The Hadow Report appeared to recognize the demands of the adolescent by stating the aims of the senior school thus: "(1) The forming and strengthening of character; (2) the training of tastes which fill and dignify leisure; and (3) the awakening and guiding of the intelligence, especially on the practical side." Notice that the awakening of the intelligence *on the practical side* is placed last. These aims are excellent and beyond criticism. But, when curricula and methods of teaching are specified, the Report places great emphasis on academic subjects, while the training of taste and character is implied or only vaguely discussed. In this respect the Hadow Report falls short of its own ideals.

Adolescence is undoubtedly full of opportunities, excitements and perils. In the class-room the overweighted intellectual curriculum should find generous room for literature, poetry, dramatics, concerts, dancing, music-making, drawing, crafts, gardening, construction, collecting, hobbies, scouting, citizenship, and sex instruction. As these are psychological necessities *they must come first.* In after years they will have an important bearing upon the mental outlook adopted toward work and leisure. They may fashion either happy or discontented workers. But they are also of immediate value, and many of them may be pursued under the difficulties imposed by a state of war.

Without careful guidance, boys and girls of the age of 15 and upward tend to drift by devious paths into undesirable forms of amusement, entertainment, and instruction. This happens mainly outside school hours. Indeed, under the restrictions imposed upon the population during the present war, many adolescents in evacuation, or with curtailed time-tables, are finding time hanging heavily on their hands, particularly after dusk. The Government scheme for evacuation has meant the removal of parental control on a wholesale basis, and has introduced a multitude of problems of varying complexity. The natural craving for excitement is intensified by abnormal conditions in our unsettled world.

The cinema, the radio, and the gramophone may be used in education to good account, especially in those areas where schools have to solve accommodation problems caused by migration. All three give entertainment, but they are also valuable instruments of instruction.

Education in war-time should be governed by the new conditions of living. The effort to encourage creative activity, the wise use of leisure time, private reading, and the appreciation of good literature should be intensified in view of black-out restrictions; geography (for evacuees, at any rate) can begin anew at home, although the social, economic, and political life of Europe will receive especial attention; history lessons will be concerned mainly with recent events; the school-library with Government Blue Books and reliable newspapers will replace the traditional text-book; debates which aim at giving a clearer understanding of the present war will not be forgotten, for the untrained mind is too apt to frame opinions on sensational newspaper articles and foreign propaganda broadcasts.

Although it is obviously impossible for the larger administrative reforms to be introduced during the war, the *spirit* of the reforms suggested by the Spens Committee may still be carried forward, particularly where details of curricula are involved.

To continue teaching young pupils Latin on traditional lines, or to introduce them to quantitative sciences involving complex formulae, is to make psychological errors which create distaste, lack of appreciation, and failure to associate the means with the end. This national upheaval provides a propitious opportunity for basing our school work upon the activities and experiences of life. We need drastic reform both of curriculum and of method.

GERMANY AND THE SPENS REPORT

By STANLEY GODMAN, B.A.

THE first account of the Spens Report to be published in Germany appeared in the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, January 8, 1939 (*School Reform Plans in England—a Comparative Study*). Most of the discussions on the Spens Report which have appeared in Germany have been, like this first account, of a comparative nature, as was perhaps inevitable when we remember that the German Ministry of Education published the new curricula for secondary schools in the spring of the same year in which the Spens Report appeared. (*Erziehung und Unterricht in der höheren Schule*, 1938: see the analysis by Gerhard Græfe in *The Year Book of Education*, 1939, pp. 274–278.) The writer in the *Frankfurter Zeitung* is careful to point out the striking contrast between the two official publications. Whilst the German 'directions' are final and unalterable and to be translated into practice at once, the English 'reform plans' are merely suggestions, offered by a committee which has no power to enforce its recommendations. The difference is fundamental, and it is clear that German students of English education find it difficult to understand how a Ministry

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can publish an official document before it has itself ' reached a decision on the issues raised '. The *Frankfurter Zeitung* then contrasts the educational situation in the two countries. Whilst England has at long last decided to grant full equality of status to technical education, and thus meet the dangers of breeding an excess of intellectuals, Germany finds herself desperately in need of new recruits to the scholastic and academic world. (The gravity of the situation in the teaching profession was movingly described by Prof. F. Dornseiff in the *Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, August 5, 1939.) On the other hand, the writer sees a parallel development in the reduction of the secondary school system, in both countries, to two or three clearly defined types of school (in Germany, *Oberschule* and *Gymnasium*; in England, secondary school, modern school, technical high school). He also notes with satisfaction that in both countries the mother tongue is to act as a " unifying principle " in the curriculum. In both countries the mother tongue is to form the *centre* around which are grouped the other subjects of the curriculum. The Spens Report deplores the lack in the secondary curriculum of a definite " way of looking at life " (p. 173) and the German writer suggests that this is closely parallel to the German emphasis on the need for a unifying *Weltanschauung*. After comparing the English plans for a new type of technical high school with the new type of German *Oberschule*, providing in the final three years for special emphasis on either the literary or the mathematical-scientific side of learning, he concludes that " the English school system will not be dissimilar to the present German system in several not unessential factors of its structure and basic principles ".

A fuller study of the Spens Report was published by Prof. Eduard Spranger, of Berlin University, in *Die Erziehung*, January 1939. He argues that the development foreshadowed in the Spens Report corresponds very closely to the Prussian reforms of 1901. He is not surprised that England has taken nearly forty years to catch up with Continental education, for indeed " English education always arrives last ", but, he adds, the outward structure and system of English education have never been its most important feature, and slowness does not necessarily imply inferiority or backwardness. (Prof. Albert Cock has also remarked on the slowness of reform in English education in his discussion of the Spens Report: " At long last, English education is beginning to conform to the continental, particularly the German model "—*Encyclopædia Britannica Book of the Year*, 1939, p. 219.) Spranger contends that the recommendation of equal status for the technical high school is parallel to the equality of status granted to the *Oberrealschule* in 1900, when equality of privilege was granted to the classical Gymnasium, the semi-classical *Realgymnasium* and the non-classical *Oberrealschule*. The technical high school is, in fact, he suggests, to a large extent modelled on the *Oberrealschule* and even more closely on Georg Kerschensteiner's *Technisches Gymnasium*. Spranger questions whether the technical high school will, in practice, live up to the hopes of the consultative committee. He notes—for our encouragement!—that the *Oberrealschule* has now completely disappeared because, he says, it could find no room for that unifying " way of looking at life " which must permeate any school that is to serve other than purely utilitarian ends.

We must, he concludes, wait and see " whether the central group of English subjects will be strong enough to counterbalance the spirit of mere materialism which is after all inherent in all technical activity ".

In a later issue of *Die Erziehung*, March 1939, Dr. B. Wachsmuth contributed to the discussion. He notes with interest the importance attached to the findings of child and adolescent psychology in the new Report (p. 107ff). He makes an interesting and significant point when he remarks that the great attention now being given in England to the psychology of youth, to the special problems and needs of youth, has not led to the " glorification of youth for youth's sake ". (Dr. Schairer has drawn attention to this danger in his essay on " Youth Movements " in *The Year Book of Education* 1938, p. 974: " It is a tendency of the present age to overvalue youth and to undervalue maturity, and particularly old age ".) Dr. Wachsmuth notes that the Report does not look upon ' youth ' as the enemy of age and maturity or as the leader of a revolt against the authority of age, that it rather urges the sympathetic understanding of youth by age and maturity and the mutual co-operation of teacher and taught. It is clear that he is here very skilfully expressing his doubts as to the wisdom of all the excessive emphasis on ' youth ' for youth's sake in Germany to-day.

He next draws attention to what he calls the " ideal product " of English education to-day. And he notes that the ideal is no longer the "gentleman", in fact the very word is not mentioned in the whole Report, but the " democratic citizen ". " Democracy " and " citizenship " are, he says, the ideals of the Spens Report, and not the " gentleman " or even the " British Empire ". It is indeed a remarkable fact that the British Empire is not mentioned once in the whole Report! Dr. Wachsmuth concludes his essay by surveying the commentaries on the Spens Report which appeared in fifty newspapers and periodicals he examined. He considers that Sir Will Spens himself, as a theologian, may have had a hand particularly in the chapter devoted to religion, but he notes at the same time that church papers such as *The Church Times* are not satisfied that the " knowledge of the Bible " which the Report recommends will lead to a noticeable revival of religion in England.

Later in the year Prof. Rudolf Muench, of Hanover, published a long discussion of the Report in the *Neuphilologische Monatsschrift*, September, 1939, pp. 319–336. He begins by remarking on the impossibility of giving anything more detailed than an " aeroplane view " of this " vast educational empire " in a short space. He first discusses the ideals of democracy as expounded in the Report. Is England a democracy? he asks. Are not the 200 so-called " public schools " a living witness to the obvious fact that England is not a democracy but is governed by a " capitalist oligarchy "? The " public schools ", he notes, are still immune from the attentions of the Board of Education and consequently entirely neglected by the Spens Report. He also notes that the Report confines its attention to England and Wales, and he wonders how many years of discussion and committees will pass before the Spens Report becomes anything more than a " Report ". It is not difficult to detect a note of impatience here—" what slow folk the English are! " he almost says—or is the introduction of conscription, he adds, a sign that England is waking up?

After these general remarks Muench turns to the question of what foreign, and particularly what German, influences can be detected in the findings of the Report. He remarks that there was a time—before the last war—when men like Sir Michael Sadler gladly paid tribute to the influence of German education in England, and he believes that there are several more indirect tributes in the Spens Report. The marked similarity between the ideas which the Report puts forward on technical education and the work of Kerschensteiner suggests, according to Muench, that his influence may have been effective. It is interesting to recall in this connexion that Kerschensteiner's pioneer work on *Education for Citizenship* (Harrap, 1912) was greeted by Sir Michael Sadler in his preface as " a landmark in the history of education ". There is indeed much in this work which anticipates the recommendations of the Spens Report. Perhaps the most striking feature of Kerschensteiner's work is his insistence on the social value of technical instruction as opposed to the more strictly individualistic content of the academic curriculum. In group work, he says, " the individual learns to subordinate himself to others, he learns to help his weaker companions, and he understands for the first time that his own interests can and must merge into the interest of the whole body " (*Education for Citizenship*,

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p. 100). Therefore, he claims, technical education, taking, as it must do, the form of co-operative work, is more fitted to produce the good citizen than purely intellectual education. The Spens Report frequently thinks along similar lines. One of Kerschensteiner's most influential ideas is his claim that many a child does not produce his best work until that work is seen as a preparation for a definite vocation. The Spens Report echoes this idea :

> " There are minds whose energies are released only by studies which have the directly envisaged goal of a vocational training. In such cases the vocational education is in the fullest sense also liberal " (p. 162).

Again, Kerschensteiner's contention that

> " a school must be a *social* institute and not merely a factory for turning out brilliant individuals "(*Education for Citizenship*, p. 106)

is a *leitmotiv* in the Spens Report (" The School as a Society ", pp. 197–205).

Whilst Kerschensteiner himself is not mentioned by name in the Report, these striking parallelisms are perhaps nevertheless worth noting.

Muench then turns to an interesting discussion of what Spranger calls the " ideal product " of English education in the future. He notes that the " gentleman " ideal has receded in favour of the "democratic citizen" ideal. The task is, and here Muench quotes the words of the Report verbatim,

> " to induce a balanced attitude which recognizes differing points of view and sees the good on both sides. . . . It is in this way . . . that teachers can best educate pupils to become citizens of a modern democratic country " (p. 174).

" Democracy is now challenged " (p. xxxi) is, Muench says, in fact the keynote of the whole Report, and its recommendations can best be understood in the light of this fundamental challenge.

Perhaps the most revealing point in Muench's discussion is his reference to what he calls the " happy position of the English school ", as contrasted in his own mind no doubt, if not in his essay, with the desperate position of the German school. He dwells on the power which the English school seems to possess in greater measure than any other to create that " pride in the school, *esprit de corps*, and loyalty to the school ", which follow from the recognition that the school is a " community " in which it is " good to live ". How different is the usual attitude of youth, particularly the proud " Hitler Youth " to their schools !

On the other hand, Muench seems surprised to find that what he calls the " latest findings of racial and characterological research in Germany " have not been used in the Spens Report ! And he also deplores the lack of any high " educational philosophy " in the Report. He suggests that the committee itself has confessed to inadequate knowledge in the sentence :

> " We know more, *though still not enough*, of the processes of thought than our fathers knew " (p. 142).

But, he adds, English education has never shone on the philosophical side, and has always relied more on a healthy instinct for what is needed rather than on any system of logic. It is, he concludes, right that it should be so, for the nations are and must be different and distinct, and each must be left to approach its problems in its own way.

But the nations can and should learn from each other's experiences. As we look back on the various discussions of the Spens Report in Germany, it seems that perhaps the most valuable contribution was that of Spranger who, reviewing the failure of the technical *Oberrealschule*, and the introduction in 1938 of a new type of bi-lateral *Oberschule* which makes special provision in the last three years of the course for specialization in literary and technical subjects, asked whether the new type of technical high school would prove to be any more workable in practice than the *Oberrealschule*. Similar doubts have been expressed by English commentators, notably by Frederic Evans in the *Quarterly Review* (April 1939). " Will these proposals succeed ? " he asks. Will not the creation of a new type of school add another cause for cleavage ? Would it not be more economical to develop in each town one secondary school with its academic and modern sides in the *same* premises ? Such a school providing for both types of education would be of far greater value from the social point of view than the creation of a new type which would have to encounter so much prejudice and snobbery before it could hope to attain truly equal status. " Had they advocated one uniform type of high school with variety within, they would have begun a new epoch in education . . . "

If the experience of other countries can help us to solve this problem, which is likely to remain our chief problem for a long time, then we should welcome all they have to offer.

POSTER ILLUSTRATION IN THE MUSIC LESSON

By R. R. DALE, M.A., M.Ed., formerly Senior Music Master at the Carlton High School, Bradford

IT is an accepted fact that the standard of music teaching in this country has risen appreciably within the last decade ; a less well-known fact is that in some respects it still lags far behind that of other subjects, for spectacular advances in several branches have been accompanied by comparative stagnation on others.

One of the most obvious faults, though one which up to now has occasioned little comment, is the frequent lack of visual illustration. It is a truism to say that we learn through our visual as well as through our aural powers, but how rarely is the notation of the themes of a composition placed in front of a class when the music is being played, or even when the themes are being learnt ! How often lessons on form are given—with auditory examples, it is true—but entirely without visual illustration ! The teaching of geography without a map is recognized as being absurd ; the teaching of music without notation is similarly absurd. Moreover, it should be realized that the visual aid is important, not only when the pupils are singing songs, but also when they are listening to records, or studying a composer. The constant association of notation with the sounds represented is surely invaluable in training pupils in sight-reading, in melody-making, and in general musicianship. Sir Walford Davies, in a foreword to one of his books, writes : " . . . an urgent appeal to users of the records to remember that the *simultaneous* use of eye and ear is an incalculable help. If you look habitually at what you hear while you hear it, you will soon become an intelligent reader and writer of tunes. Only a day or two ago, I heard from a schoolboy that they had French records at school to teach them pronunciation, but ' I don't think much of them, because you cannot *see* what they are saying '. If the French Master would only put the book into the boy's hands while the record is on, the use would probably be more than doubled. It is worth much trouble to profit by this schoolboy's unconscious instruction ".* The principle applies not only to notation, but also to the use of diagrammatic and other visual aids.

There have been welcome signs recently that the value of the visual aid is beginning to be recognized. A number

* " Melody Making " Gramophone Company.

(*Continued on page 334*)

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for January and May, 1941, contain two authoritative articles on this subject, one by M. L. Jacks, Director of the Department of Education, University of Oxford, and the other by J. H. Simpson, The College of S. Mark and S. John.

The Editor hopes to publish in early numbers of THE JOURNAL further contributions on this topic, including articles by T. W. Sussams, Dr. H. Lambridis, and Miss Catherine Fletcher.

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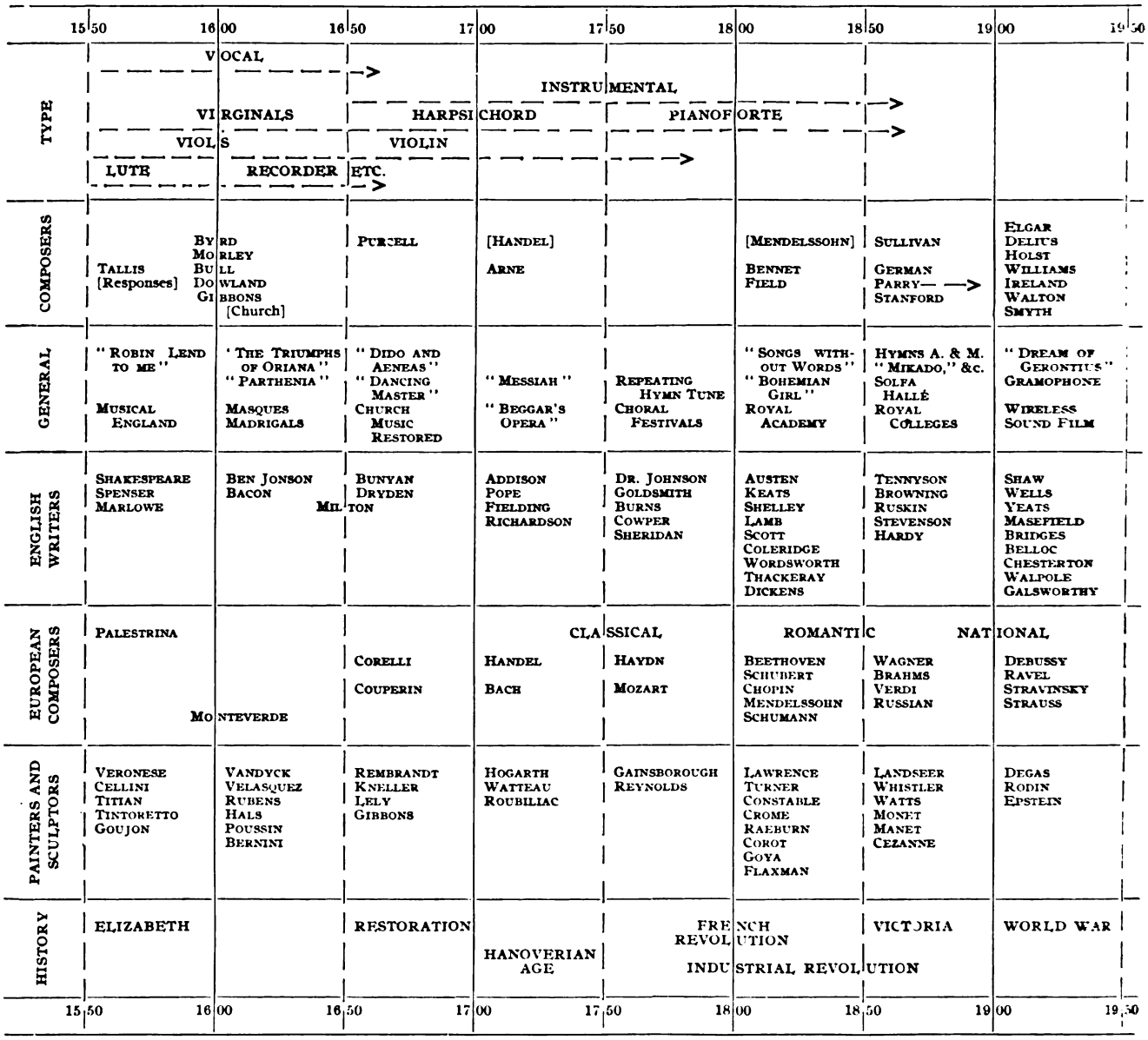
A HISTORY OF ENGLISH MUSIC

(Correlated with English Literature and European Music and Art)



of schools have introduced hymn-books in which the melodies are given, and more schools are using keyboard models. As regards poster-illustrations, however, a questionnaire answered by some seventy teachers has shown that very few are used, and it is with this type of visual illustration in particular that there appears to be abundant opportunity—and an urgent need—for development.

Many teachers will immediately say, "We cannot possibly find time to use posters. Even now we can teach only a few branches of the subject." Yet, used with discretion, as incidental to the song that is being learnt, or record that is being played, they can actually save time.

For example, if a chart representing the story of English Music, correlated with that of English Literature and European Music and Art, is fixed permanently to the wall in front of the class, it can reduce considerably the time spent on verbal explanation, and at the same time broaden the outlook of the pupils. With a few motions of a pointer, the teacher is able to relate the composer to the period in which he lived and to his musical contemporaries, &c. This method has also the great advantage of achieving a much more lasting impression. A similar reduction of teaching-time may be effected in the learning of themes by placing the notation in front of the children, either in theme books or on posters.

Visual illustration can be just as useful in emphasizing form in music as it is in clarifying the history of music. In this branch coloured inks are particularly valuable for distinguishing between different sections and themes. Good subjects for illustration are: "The Way in which a Song is Built", "Sequence", "Two and Three Part Form", "Sonata Form", and "Fugue".

A keyboard-diagram is a most important aid in the teaching of the rudiments of music, and in sight-singing.

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It is helpful to have it in a permanent position in front of the class; thus no time is wasted in finding it and in fumbling with elusive drawing-pins. Once made and placed in position, it will be in constant use for the elucidation of points which would otherwise entail a long verbal explanation, and then not be as clear. It appears to give a more definite realization of the difference between tone and semitone, of the faults in staff notation arising from that difference (*i.e.* no distinction being made by the lines and spaces of the difference between the tone interval from say G to A, and the semitone interval from E to F). In close connexion with the above come the real understanding of the purpose of key-signatures, greater ease and accuracy in the writing of the scales, and the provision of a basis for the study of harmony.

The study of the orchestra, too, provides many opportunities for the use of posters. A set of large-size pictures of the instruments, fixed round the room, will create a furore of excitement, and used with records they are indispensable for securing the connexion between the name of the instrument, its sound, and its appearance. The subject can also be illustrated by posters showing melodies played by the different instruments in compositions which are included in the school record library.

Some of these posters can be built up gradually on the blackboard as the teacher proceeds with the lesson, but this would often take too much time, while in addition the posters constructed at leisure are naturally clearer. On the other hand, it is undoubtedly true that there are many simple illustrations for which the blackboard is a much more suitable medium.

Music-teachers are extremely busy people, and many think that they can neither spare the time to prepare charts nor devote much time to using them. Actually, if several charts are prepared each year, they soon become a representative collection, and the teacher need only prepare and use those which suit his requirements. Where, too, the right spirit of co-operation exists, the Art Master will be prepared to allow some of his pupils to execute a number of posters (from the Music Master's rough draft) during art lessons. Failing this, it might be possible to secure the co-operation of one's wife, husband, or friends!

It is true that, where music is allotted a mere forty minutes a week, a number of the charts could not be used, but, as it has already been pointed out, the fixing of one or two charts, such as "A History of English Music" and a keyboard diagram, permanently in front of the class will result in a saving of time, and will stimulate interest in the lessons.

Moreover, although the rooms in which music is taken are unfortunately not always suitable for the permanent display of charts, a little ingenuity and perseverance will often surmount such difficulties.

Where two periods a week, or more, are allowed, other diagrams should be brought into use, and some time might be spent by the pupils in copying parts of the simpler ones into their manuscript books. These books, when properly divided into sections, become useful little summaries of the school course, and are treasured by many pupils. There is, undeniably, a danger that the teacher might acquire a poster and manuscript book mania, and use each lesson for lecturing on posters and dictating notes instead of co-operating with the pupils in making music; but, where these aids are used wisely and with restraint, they can be of incalculable value.

"O Lord God, when Thou givest to Thy servants to endeavour any great matter, grant us also to know that it is not the beginning but the continuing of the same until it is thoroughly finished which yieldeth the true glory."

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

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A PLEA FOR MUSIC IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By D. N. BLASDALE

THE Spens Report repeats in 1938 the following recommendation which was made in 1923 : " That a more prominent and established place in the ordinary curricula of schools for boys and girls should be assigned to aesthetic subjects, including Music, Art, and other forms of aesthetic training, and that special attention should be paid to developing the capacity for artistic appreciation as distinct from executive skill." The fact that it is considered necessary to reaffirm this recommendation suggests that very little advance has been made in the teaching of music in secondary schools during the last fifteen years. While there are some schools in which music is well taught and a solid musical foundation laid for real appreciation in after-life, there are still far too many schools in which music is the ' Cinderella ' of all subjects.

Why is it that music is considered to be of so little value in the school curriculum ? Perhaps because for most pupils it is a non-vocational subject. While admitting that training for one's future career is essential, most people would agree that a general education should also include cultural subjects and those which afford intellectual training. Life would be unthinkable without music. It is an essential factor in all the important occasions of life : religious services, marriages, funerals, ceremonies of all kinds, dances ; it is a natural way of expressing emotion ; and yet, while it is admitted that training is essential before there can be general appreciation of the best in literature, the general attitude towards music is that either one is musical or not musical, and that nothing further can be done about it.

That ability varies from one child to another is of course as true of music as of any other subject, but there are very few really unmusical children. Whether they develop a taste for all that is best and greatest in our musical literature depends on the influences brought to bear upon them in their earliest years, and on the training they get in secondary schools during the period of adolescence.

Besides its cultural value, music is as useful as any other subject for its intellectual training. It demands alert attention and powers of concentration. As drawing trains the eye so music trains the ear. First, the child's rhythmic sense and imagination are developed along with powers of observation, and later he learns to judge and discriminate, and the creative faculty is stimulated.

Some training for leisure is considered necessary by most modern educationists. Love of the beautiful in art and literature is fostered by subjects included in the school curriculum. Music no less than these subjects expresses the thoughts and reflects the personalities of great men, and, for those who can understand contact with minds such as those of Beethoven, Mozart, Bach, cannot fail to be a source of spiritual uplift.

As a social art, music is of tremendous importance. In the singing lesson children learn to cooperate with one another towards a common aim. Music is the one subject in which pupils of all ages can join when occasion demands. Therefore, music should be considered worthy of a more important place than it occupies in many of our secondary schools to-day.

My own experience has been mainly in a school situated in a small town in a semi-industrial area. Here the Preparatory Form has two periods a week ; one period a week in Forms I and II ; nothing at all in Form III ; the choice of music or swimming for one period in Form IV. In the School Certificate and Higher School Certificate Forms a pupil may choose music from a group of alternative subjects for one period a week. A few take music in the School Certificate examination and sometimes in Higher School Certificate, and music is then given as much time as are the other examination subjects. There are also a school orchestra and a violin class.

It is for the general course in music throughout the school, however, that I am making a plea. It seems to me that every form should have at least one period a week for music, and if possible this should not be the last lesson in the afternoon, since music requires as much mental effort as other subjects. The difficulties of ' time-tabling ' are many ; but one period a week seems little enough to ask for. This is compulsory in schools in Scotland. A writer in a musical periodical, regarding music as a language, even goes so far as to suggest that one period a day is necessary for adequate results.

Another respect in which music is unfairly treated is that it is often taught by unqualified people. Whereas it is the accepted principle in secondary schools that other subjects should be taught by highly qualified specialists, music is often taught by any one who has a mere smattering of the subject. In my own school four different members of the staff teach music. So, while there are quite a number of musical activities in the school, the general level of musical education is not high, because of the lack of continuity in the training.

It is often impossible to employ a full-time music master or to find one who can also teach some other subject, but at any rate the subject should be organized by either a professional musician or a well-qualified person, and every lesson, particularly since there is to be only one per week, should be carefully planned.

It cannot be over-emphasized that the teacher besides being keen and enthusiastic must also be a person of real musicianship, an artist with a broad outlook and a knowledge of musical works equal to the English specialist's knowledge of literature. It may be that the low esteem in which music was held by educationists in the past was in some measure due to the poor methods of teaching. In those schools which are fortunate enough to have really good music teachers, headmasters will be thoroughly convinced of the special value of music and will realize that it is not a mere frill but a subject that is well worth while.

On leaving the secondary school, children should be able to read simple music at sight, should have learnt a large number of songs, folk songs, classical and modern songs (some in a finished manner for public performance) ; should have had some aural training and practice in making up simple melodies, a little knowledge of musical form (taught of course from the music itself).

They should also be acquainted with some instrumental and orchestral works of the Great Masters. In this connexion use might be made of any talented pupils in the school, of concerts which may be organized specially for children in the district, or of the gramophone or wireless.

The school orchestra, too, should be of great assistance here. In a school of 400 pupils it ought to be possible to find at least 30 to take part in the orchestra. From the best players of the orchestra might be chosen a quartet consisting of two violinists, a viola player, and a 'cellist which, in combination with a competent pianist, could perform trios, quartets, or quintets. If the school possesses a preparatory department, the percussion band should be introduced, as this is an excellent preparation for the orchestra.

The main object is to make the children like the best in music by choosing suitable material ; Bach, Beethoven, Mozart, Brahms, and Mendelssohn have all written works which children can understand and appreciate, and, if the taste for music of those composers is developed, children will wish to explore further for themselves and will find untold delight in our glorious heritage of music.

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RESEARCH AND SCHOOL WORK

IV.—EXPRESSION IN ORAL FORM

By Dr. C. M. FLEMING, University of London Institute of Education

THE beginnings of present-day study of oral expression may be traced to the middle of the nineteenth century when attempts at recording the early speech of a child were made by several experimental psychologists. The Child Study Movement of the eighteen-nineties gave encouragement to such endeavours, and reports appeared at intervals in the first three decades of the twentieth century. Time samples of varying extent were taken over periods of one hour, one day, one week, or one fortnight, and a considerable amount of information was collected. Its reliability, however, was low because of the difficulty of registering complete oral activity and the non-representative character of the children studied.

In recent years more scientific accuracy has become possible. Samples of children have been selected in such a way as to correspond in numbers to the proportions in various age groups and occupational levels. Comparable time-samplings have been used along with more refined statistical analysis of results. Mechanical means of recording sounds have also been devised, and with their use a further increase in the reliability of results may be expected.

As in the case of the learning activities of children in other school subjects, recent investigations of oral expression have been concerned with such topics as social usefulness, the errors made by pupils at various ages, the factors accompanying failure, and the most satisfactory means of diagnosing difficulty and providing remedial exercises.

At the beginning of the twentieth century relatively little attention was paid in most schools to the development of fluent speech. In recent years, however, as part of the effort to adapt education more specifically to the needs of life, encouragement has been given to broadcast talks on speech training as well as to verse-speaking competitions, and new methods have been brought into the class-room. In oral composition, as in written composition, there has been an advance from formal study to the provision of activities designed to make the desire for self-expression vivid to the pupils. Mere correction of errors has given place to the attempt to establish correct habits and to improve personal adjustments so that speech defects may be eliminated.

In daily life oral expression is much more frequent than expression in writing, and the efforts that have been made to record all the social uses of language have proved valuable as a reminder of the desirability of specific practice in such types of experience as informal conversation, group discussions, speech making, acting as chairman, the use of the telephones, interviews, directions, instructions, explanations, story-telling. Most of these activities are included in the ordinary background of children with wisely-planned homes; but recent text-books for schools suggest means of bringing them within the experience of all pupils.

Analysis of mistakes made by pupils has followed the same general lines as studies of error in written composition. The same types of error have been found; but the total lists are not identical, and there is considerable evidence to indicate that correct habits of written expression are not necessarily accompanied by correct habits of speech. More loosely constructed sentences and more run-on sentences occur in speech than in writing. Direct transference also does not occur from correctness in speech to correctness in writing.

Study of the development of spoken language has been conducted in two main ways, (*a*) by an analysis of the vocabulary, sentence-structure, and function of language in groups of children at different ages, and (*b*) by long-term studies of individual children. The former has gained in precision through the utilization of modern methods of research, while the latter has increased in thoroughness since the establishment in the last ten years of clinics for the prolonged study of child development.

The chief interest of both types of investigation has been their revelation of the amount of growth which takes place before a child is old enough to go to school, and emphasis has been laid by both on the part played by environment in stimulating development and in guiding the formation of correct habits of speech.

From the reflex sounds of infancy up to the emergence of true speech a sequence may be traced from vocal grunts (which vary in timbre, pitch, and pattern), through vowel and consonant sounds, to the babbling repetition of syllables and shouting for attention which are the first socialized vocalization. This is followed by expressive tones and inflections, comprehensible words, the use of pronouns, and the use of phrases and sentences.

The use of words as symbols begins between the eighth and the seventeenth month, but vocabulary usually increases very slowly for the first six months. In the third and fourth years approximately six hundred new words seem to be added yearly, and in the fifth and sixth years about five hundred new words appear.

The development of language takes place by this addition of new responses, and also by the movement from a more

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general to a more precise understanding of the significance of the symbols. The learning of language, however, seems to proceed by wholes rather than by parts; and, after about two years of age, the proportions of different parts of speech used are very similar to those at later ages. Practically every form of sentence-structure has under favourable conditions been employed by the age of five or six years, but there is later a steady increase in the length and complexity of responses and in the number of adverbial and adjectival clauses.

Studies of language-development have drawn attention to the amazing amount of practice received daily by children who have opportunities for social intercourse of a type that may be called normal. They also indicate the adverse effect of broken home-life or of life in institutions, where such encouragement towards self-expression is lacking.

Even within otherwise normal families there is evidence to show that verbal facility is influenced by differences in environmental conditions. Only children have been reported to articulate better and use a larger vocabulary than children with brothers and sisters, and these in turn are said to be more advanced than twins at each age level.

A similar effect of environment is shown in the differences revealed by the study of groups of children of comparable mental age and different socio-economic status. Retardation of from four to twelve months in sentence-structure and vocabulary has been shown to exist among children of parents of different occupational levels.

Language development is also directly associated with the growth of intelligence. So much is this the case that vocabulary tests have been used to measure mental ability; and studies of feeble-minded or of gifted children have shown great divergences from the normal, both in language-content and in structure.

A realization of the part played by normal physical health and freedom from emotional upsets is one of the contributions made by case studies of pupils whose speech development is retarded. Language difficulties are often directly related to factors such as malnutrition, fatigue, defective vision, hearing or dentition, diseased tonsils or adenoids (as well as to more obvious physical disabilities, such as malformations of the speech organs, birth injuries, and muscular or nervous weakness). Symptoms such as timidity, inability to listen, lack of interest, indistinctness of utterance, or undue tenseness may be relieved by attention to the general health of the child.

Unhappy home-life, conditions of strain, lack of sympathy, over-indulgence, prolongation of babyhood may all contribute to irregularity in development; and the imitation of faulty speech patterns may be the cause of what appears to be a marked speech defect.

Except for general attempts to increase interest in correct habits of speech and to widen the range of pupils' interests by providing a natural setting for varied uses of language, the chief remedial work in the field of speech has centred on marked forms of speech defect such as difficulties in articulation, disturbances in rhythm (stuttering or stammering), and failures in expression (aphasia). There have been, of course, some discussions of choice of topic, selection of material, organization of material, effect upon audiences, voice production, rate of speech, overt bodily activity, &c., but they have, for the most part, been suited to adult students interested in public speaking. The treatment of speech defects in children has, in recent years, progressed from a formal approach, with an emphasis on physical accompaniments, to an interpretation which postulates the need for sympathetic study of individuals and an effort to improve their adjustment to life as one of the most important steps towards a solution of the specific difficulties of their disability.

Diagnosis of defects in articulation is based mainly upon listening to a child's unemotional spontaneous speech; but some estimate is also needed of his understanding of spoken language, and tests may be given to measure his ability to pronounce and use words containing consonant and vowel sounds.

Remedial work may be directed to the exercising of weak and relaxed muscles in tongue, lip, or soft palate. Direct practice in listening to a sound produced correctly by the teacher may be followed by attempts on the part of the pupil to imitate what he has heard. Efforts are best directed to the perfecting of one sound at a time. Attentive reproduction is essential; and the active interest and co-operation of the child are necessary.

Studies of stutterers require very thorough investigation of the pupils' developmental history, both in relation to the onset of stuttering and to early retardation in other motor activities. Information as to the type of handedness and the amount of left-handedness in the family background is also of importance along with details of the family and personal history in physical, emotional, and mental health.

Treatment has to be based on a full consideration of all the evidence so obtained. The physical condition of the stutterer has to be made as perfect as possible through medical treatment, where necessary, and through a wise programme of sleep, exercise, and diet. His attitude to his disability has to be made objective. He has to attain insight into himself, his development, and his relationship to other pupils. He has to discover what particular situations cause him embarrassment, and he has to be freed as far as possible from fear and shame in relation to his difficulties.

(An older pupil may be led to an understanding of his handicap by writing an autobiographical account of his home, family, and personal history. This autobiography may then be used as a text-book with a view to discovering his attitudes—social, emotional, and vocational. Some knowledge of the history of other stutterers is also useful.)

Practice in graded experiences of the type which cause him confusion is usually helpful, and a development of left-handedness may be desirable (if there is a history of confusion in handedness or of left-handedness suppressed in childhood).

Finally, the stutterer is helped by any devices or direction of interests which lead him to talk more and act more, and think and feel less about himself. Improved personal adjustment to life often carries with it an apparently spontaneous disappearance of his symptoms.

In the treatment of aphasia much depends on the history of the difficulty; but the first task of the teacher is again to improve the general adjustment of the pupil and to convince him that education is possible.

The findings of research may be summarized as follows:

1. There is need for specific training in oral expression. Correct habits are not necessarily transferred from written expression to oral language.

2. Activities involving oral expression are much more frequent in daily life than activities involving writing.

3. A large part of the development of spoken language normally occurs in pre-school years.

4. There is a marked improvement in vocabulary, articulation, and structure with increasing age; but progress can be accelerated by deliberate speech training.

5. Language development is adversely affected by lack of encouragement towards speech, and it may vary with the position of a child in the family constellation.

6. There is a positive relation between socio-economic status and linguistic development.

7. Linguistic environment plays a large part in determining linguistic development. Remedial training should be directed to the attentive hearing and deliberate reproduction of correct patterns of speech. One learns to speak and listen through practice in speaking and listening.

8. Initiative and activity on the pupil's part are a necessary condition of progress. Materials for speech training should be within the range of the child's interests and level of maturity.

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9. Correction of speech defect should be preceded by and accompanied by measures to improve the mental and physical health of the pupil.

Research is needed on the following topics:

1. The construction of tests to measure development in oral expression.
2. Class-room conditions as they affect the growth of ability to express ideas orally.
3. The uses of oral speech at various stages of development.
4. The construction of tests to measure speech-comprehension at different ages.
5. The relation between language development and motor development.
6. The relative effectiveness of formal correction of errors and extended practice in using correct forms.

THE RED CROSS AND THE SCHOOLS

By E. A. H. JAY, O.B.E., Organizing Secretary, Educational Appeal Section

SOON after the Duke of Gloucester issued his appeal in support of the Red Cross and St. John Organization, it was decided to make a special approach to schools and colleges of all grades, and to juvenile organizations such as the Boy Scouts and Girl Guides Associations, with a view to arousing their interest in the work of the Red Cross and securing their support. A strong committee was formed, with Sir Edmund Phipps (who has since been succeeded by Sir Henry Richards) as chairman, on which the following bodies were represented: Association of Head Masters; Association of Head Mistresses; Association of Preparatory Schools; Association of Principals of Technical Institutions; Boy Scouts Association; British Red Cross Society (Junior Branch); Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of Universities; Girl Guides Association; Headmasters' Conference; Independent Schools Association; National Association of Boys' Clubs; National Association of Head Teachers. The committee at once set to work to bring the many activities of the Red Cross to the notice of schools throughout the country, and issued suggestions for ways in which schools might help to raise money for the Duke of Gloucester's Fund. The co-operation of local education authorities in England and Wales was sought, and nearly all the more important authorities expressed their willingness to distribute literature and to sanction the use of the school organization, subject to the approval of the head teachers concerned and provided that no pressure was put upon the children. A separate approach was made to colleges of universities, public schools, preparatory schools, private schools, &c.

The response has been encouraging, and many ingenious schemes have been devised. Some schools have organized concerts, dramatic performances, or gymnastic displays; some of the children have arranged sales of articles made at school or in their leisure time at home; others, again, have grown plants in school gardens and sold them for the Fund. Bazaars, auction sales, and jumble sales have been held, and collections made at exhibitions and other functions, such as annual exhibitions of art and handicraft. Money has also been earned by children working in the fields, cleaning cars and bicycles, or doing various odd jobs. Carol-singing at Christmas took place in many schools, both primary and secondary. Special appeals were issued to their members by the Association of Head Mistresses, The Independent Schools Association, The Association of Preparatory Schools, and other bodies, all of whom have raised considerable sums towards the purchase of ambulances, mobile electro-therapeutic units, &c. Substantial donations have also been received from colleges of universities and some of the principal public schools.

Here are some extracts from letters received from village schools in different parts of the country:

> " . . . We have hopes to collect many more pounds to aid the wonderful work which the Red Cross is doing for our wounded soldiers and prisoners of war. . . ."
>
> " . . . The little children preferred the money to be sent to you instead of being spent on prizes for them, and the teachers were very willing that this should be done. . . ."
>
> " . . . My school friends and I of Class 3 of —— have collected this sum (5s.) for you to use for the benefit of our soldiers, sailors, and airmen. I am still trying to collect, so look out for another letter. . . ."

A headmistress, sending a contribution from a village school, expressed the hope of the children that " this little gift would help to heal some one who had been less fortunate than themselves ".

On January 1, 1941, H.R.H. The Duke of Gloucester issued the following New Year's message of thanks and encouragement:

> " St. James's Palace.
>
> I have heard with great pleasure of the many ways in which schools and colleges, boys' and girls' clubs, and other juvenile organizations have been helping to raise money for the Red Cross—St. John Fund, and I should like to send you all a message of personal thanks for what you are doing.
>
> Some of you, I am told, have been organizing concerts and dramatic entertainments: some have held sales of articles made by yourselves in and out of school: others, again, have given up prizes or summer outings in order to send money to the Fund.
>
> The £25,000 which up to now you have succeeded in raising, with the help and encouragement of the staff and with the co-operation of Old Boys' and Old Girls' Associations, will be of great assistance to the Red Cross in providing convalescent hospitals, ambulances, &c., for our sick and wounded sailors, soldiers, and airmen, and in its work on behalf of those injured in air-raids on this country and of our prisoners-of-war in Germany.
>
> With every new development of the war, the responsibilities of the Red Cross are likely to increase and the demands on its resources in the New Year are sure to be greater than in 1940.
>
> So I hope you will continue your good work, and even redouble your energies during the coming months.
>
> I shall continue to watch the progress of the Fund with the greatest interest.
>
> HENRY.
>
> 1st January, 1941."

His Royal Highness's message has encouraged the schools to greater effort. A teacher writes: " The children of Class I were so delighted with your enclosure of H.R.H. The Duke of Gloucester's letter that they decided to have a special week of effort. We should like to keep the effort going and extend it to the whole school." Facsimiles for school notice-boards can be obtained from the Organizing Secretary, Educational Appeal Section, Duke of Gloucester's Red Cross and St. John Fund, St. James's Palace, S.W. 1.

The committee have recently issued some *Notes for Talks* for the use of teachers who may like to speak to their pupils about the work of the Red Cross. The notes open with a brief introductory account of the history of the British Red Cross Society and of the Order of St. John. The various activities of the Joint War Organization are then described. The means by which British prisoners-of-war and interned civilians in enemy territory are being supplied with parcels of food, tobacco, and invalid comforts, is explained; and

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how transport difficulties, which after France's capitulation appeared almost insurmountable, are being successfully overcome. It is shown how, with the help of the International Committee at Geneva, the missing are traced, and good news brought to many a home where hope had been almost abandoned; and how relatives visiting members of the Forces and civilian victims of air raids when dangerously ill in hospital are taken care of by Red Cross workers, who make all arrangements for their transport and lodging, and where necessary pay their expenses as well. The work being carried on night and day along our coasts by Red Cross and St. John personnel is described; how, working in co-operation with members of the Shipwrecked Mariners' Society, they meet passengers and crews brought ashore from ships that have been sunk by enemy action; and how survivors found to be wounded or suffering from shock are treated and, when necessary, taken to hospital. Then follows an account of the heroic work done by Red Cross and St. John detachments in tending persons injured in air raids and those trapped under the wreckage of bombed houses, many themselves becoming casualties through their devotion to duty at air-raid posts.

Among other activities dealt with in the notes are: the establishment and maintenance of convalescent homes and auxiliary hospitals, for which many beautiful country mansions have been placed at the disposal of the Red Cross; the services of the 5,000 working parties engaged in making garments, bandages, and surgical necessities from material supplied from the Organization's Central Stores; and the training of 300,000 men and women as auxiliary nurses in Service and Civil Emergency hospitals, or as A.R.P. workers at first-aid posts, &c.

To accompany the notes, lantern slides have been collected from various sources, and six sets are now in circulation.

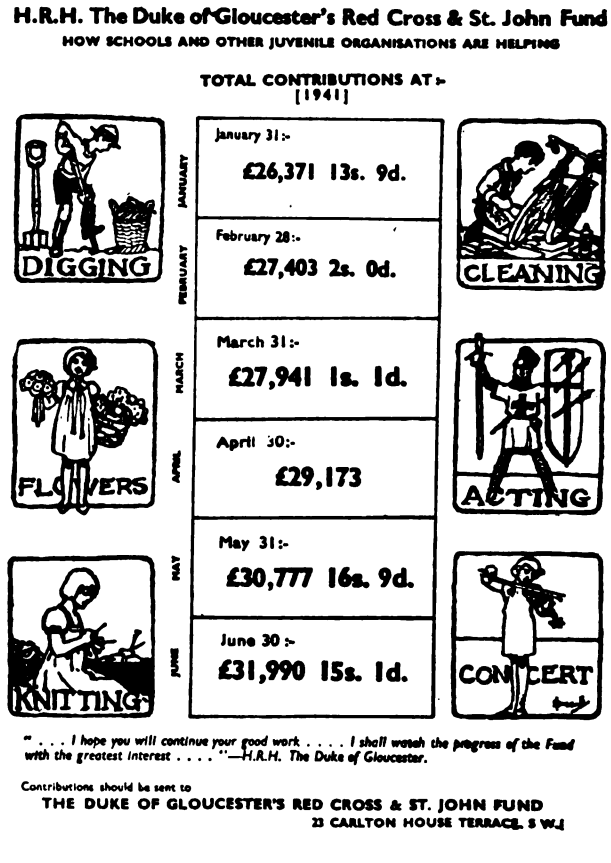
Application for copies of the notes (enclosing 3d. to cover postage) should be made to Miss Margaret Cross, Editorial Secretary, British Red Cross Society, 13 Belgrave Square, S.W. 1, to whom requests for the loan of slides should also be addressed. No charge is made for their use. It is essential that slides should be applied for *at least a fortnight before they are required, and that they should be returned immediately after use.*

Schools having 16mm. sound-projectors can now borrow copies of a short film, "The Red Cross in Action", which has been produced for the War Organization by British Movietone News. Of particular interest are shots showing the work of the Red Cross in caring for prisoners-of-war and tracing missing men, and the very elaborate card-index system in use by the International Red Cross at Geneva. From a peaceful English village, where old and young knit garments for sick and wounded combatants and for air-raid victims, to a great military hospital in France before the evacuation of Dunkirk, the picture goes on to show such various activities as packing food- and clothing-parcels for prisoners-of-war, making inquiries for missing relatives, auctioning jewels and livestock in aid of the Red Cross, the work of the Penny-a-Week Fund, and many other services in a movement whose motto is—"HUMANITY IN WAR". The running commentary is spoken by Mr. Leslie Mitchell. Inquiries should be addressed to Mr. William Farr, Central Film Library, Imperial Institute, London, S.W. 7.

For the six drawings shown below the committee are indebted to Mr. John Hassall. They illustrate various ways in which schools are rendering personal service to the Red Cross. The totals raised by the Educational Appeal Section of the Fund are shown in the panels. It is proposed that these totals should be issued monthly and added to the figures already given. Schools can then, if they wish, make enlargements of the block to put up on their notice-boards, the increasing totals being inserted month by month as they appear. It is, of course, open to head teachers to vary the design or to alter the drawings in any way they may think fit; but it is thought that some pictorial representation of the growth of the Fund would be interesting to the school, as well as helping a great cause.

The total funds received by the Treasurer up to July 16, exceeded six million pounds, but of this nearly seven-eighths had already been expended. At the beginning of the war it was estimated that the annual expenditure would be at least £3,000,000, and in view of recent developments this figure is likely to be exceeded.

It will thus be seen that if the Red Cross is to carry on its vital work unhindered and without anxiety, there must be no slackening in the national effort; and we are confident that the schools will continue to play their part.



"The day is coming, if it has not already come, when the question of the balance of power cannot be confined to Europe alone . . . England, though she is bound to Europe by tradition, by affection, by great similarity of habits, and all those ties which time alone can create and consecrate, is not a mere Power of the Old World. Her geographical position, her laws, her language and religion, connect her as much with the New World as with the Old. And, although she has occupied an eminent . . . position among European nations for ages, still, if ever Europe by her shortsightedness falls into an inferior and exhausted state, for England there will remain an illustrious future. We are bound to communities of the New World and those great States which our own planting and colonizing energies have created, by ties and interests which will sustain our power and enable us to play as great a part in the times yet to come as we do in these days and we have done in the past. And therefore now that Europe is on the eve of war, I say it is for Europe not for England, that my heart sinks."

BENJAMIN DISRAELI.

Monypenny and Buckle, quoted by Arthur Bryant in *English Saga*.

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APPRENTICESHIP IN THE POST-WAR DEVELOPMENT

By A. H. STUART, Ph.D., B.Sc., Headmaster, Day Technical School, Hackney Technical Institute

Seven years a baby,
Seven years at school,
Seven years' apprenticeship,
Seven years . . .

THIS jingle was common among the young men in mid-Victorian workshops and so far as the third line was concerned it represented the normal way of life for a very large majority of the boys of the period. Apprenticeship at the age of 14 and ' out of your time ' at 21 was expected of boys for many years after Henry Carey mentioned " seven long years " in *Sally in our Alley*. To-day the system is nearly but not quite dead.

In its origin, the apprenticeship system was probably aimed at maintaining; a monopoly and, even after that aim had failed, it was generally considered that seven years were necessary for a boy to acquire skill in the trade concerned. During the war the writer has been associated with the Ministry of Labour scheme for the training of women for the engineering industry. He has seen women who have come from millinery or domestic work and have passed through a carefully planned and executed eight-week course of intensive training, acquire in that short time a degree of skill and dexterity at various branches of engineering work which would not have been thought possible by the men who chanted the jingle quoted above.

It is not unreasonable to ask therefore whether the seven years, which were taken so much for granted, were really necessary. In the old days the apprentice was attached to a skilled worker and left to ' pick up ' his job as best he could. Much depended on the goodwill or otherwise of the older man, but at its best the method is not very attractive.

As the industrial pace quickened, payment by results, or ' piece-work ' became almost universal, and it was obviously impossible for a man to give any systematic instruction to an apprentice without grave hardship to himself. Later, most trades, but especially engineering, were developed on mass-production lines which resulted in a falling-off in the number of really skilled men needed. Here we have the root causes for the decline of the apprenticeship system. Firms would no longer be bothered with apprentices since a high degree of skill was not necessary in the great majority of workers, but merely manual dexterity in one or two often-repeated operations.

It is only when a major war descends upon us and industry has, without loss of time, to switch over from normal work to operations of a new and unfamiliar type, that the lack of skilled men who can readily adapt themselves to this change becomes apparent. One then wonders whether it was a wise policy to allow the apprenticeship system to be reduced to its present condition.

As the post-war period will afford opportunities to remedy many mistakes of the past, it may not be out of place to examine a few examples of existing apprenticeships, and see what lines of development are indicated for the future. We find something comparable to the old form of apprenticeship operating in those departments of human endeavour where a specialized type of skill is needed. Thus it is not surprising to find aircraft apprentices in the Royal Air Force and artificer and dockyard apprentices in the Royal Navy. The Post Office Telephone Department has ' youths-in-training ', and apprentices are admitted to the Royal Ordnance Factories and the Royal Mint. Large industrial undertakings too have their own apprenticeship schemes, the London Passenger Transport Board, Messrs. Vickers-Armstrong, and the British Thomson-Houston Company may be mentioned as examples.

Long as this list may appear it remains true that it only represents a small fraction of the whole, and the huge number of smaller firms which absorb the youth of the country have no such scheme but euphemistically call their new entrants ' improvers '. Exactly what is improved is left undefined.

Where a firm is specialized enough and sufficiently large to make an apprenticeship scheme a mutually profitable proposition, there are often three distinct types of apprentice. These are, in a typical case, called :

(1) Trade Apprentices ;
(2) Drawing Office Apprentices ;
(3) Student Apprentices.

In the first two the boy enters at the age of not less than 16 and not more than 17, and the agreement, after six months' trial, terminates at the age of 21.

The Trade Apprentices choose one department, such as machining and turning, fitting or toolmaking, and spend from six to twelve months on each of a number of operations in that trade. The practical training in the workshops is supplemented by attendance at classes at a local technical institute, in the best cases held during working hours and recognized as an integral part of the apprenticeship. A few very large firms are able to organize these classes inside the works, but, where a well-equipped technical institute is available within easy reach, this course would appear to be unnecessary duplication.

Drawing Office Apprentices are selected either by a competitive examination or after interviewing boys who have completed a junior technical school course. These apprentices usually spend the first year in the drawing office with a view to their becoming familiar with the routine. They then pass through a number of shops in the works, spending some six months in each, and end up with a final year in the drawing office. During this period they are expected to take the National Certificate course at a technical institute, and should have obtained the Higher National Certificate, or at least be within easy reach of it, by the end of the apprenticeship.

The Student Apprenticeship is of three-year duration and is open to university graduates or men of similar qualifications. The purpose of the training afforded is to equip men for positions of responsibility in the industry.

These three grades of apprenticeship take it for granted that all men are not of equal capacity, but in the best cases there are ready means for passing from one to another by deserving apprentices. Thus, if a boy enters in the lowest grade through lack of an early education, he may (and not infrequently does) pass upwards, even to the highest grade in outstanding cases. The writer has had personal knowledge of a considerable number of sons of poor parents who have risen to positions of considerable responsibility in the industry by means of sustained perseverance in an apprenticeship scheme of this type.

It is obvious that, with all the good will in the world, a sound and well-planned scheme such as that outlined is possible only in a large firm with extensive plant. There are a number of such firms and their apprenticeship schemes not only provide excellent opportunities for the boys who enter them also but the firm benefits by training its own staff. The fact remains however that, taking industry as a whole, these fortunate apprentices form but a mere fraction of the recruits absorbed. What is being done for the majority ? Perhaps a more helpful question is : What are we going to do for the majority ?

There is little prospect of a general revival of the apprenticeship scheme as we understand it to-day. Indeed, it is difficult to see how it could be efficiently operated in many modern works. There can be no doubt that extra-mural

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education must provide a substitute, and it was with this end in view that the junior technical schools were started some thirty or forty years ago. These however provide a full-time education for boys leaving the elementary schools and do not touch those who go straight into industry.

The evening technical institutes provide classes for these, but only heroes can face evening classes when they are working under modern shop conditions for at least forty-four hours a week. The only satisfactory system would provide suitable classes for these workers during working hours. In most cases there are no obstacles to providing the classes, and with reasonable good will it should not be difficult for large firms to release their young workers in batches for this purpose. Small firms with relatively small numbers involved will naturally find that shop organization tends to become dislocated with such a scheme, but with some system of pooling and co-operation the difficulties should not prove insuperable.

While classes in cultural subjects will no doubt be encouraged out of working hours, those carried on within the working day will be expected to provide the systematic training in the trade concerned which modern conditions have rendered almost impossible inside the works.

Careful thought should be given in these cases, since there is a tendency to provide instruction in subjects leading elsewhere and to avoid perfecting latent skill in the work which is employing the boy during the greater part of his working hours. Thus, in the engineering industry many a boy who might have made a highly skilled mechanic has developed a desire to " get into the drawing office ", with the result that the country has lost a skilled mechanic and gained an indifferent draughtsman. By all means let us have easy passage from one branch of training to another, but the industry will never flourish with too many of its recruits drifting in one direction.

Relative *merit* of the work done, whether reflected in remuneration, hours of work, or social standing, is another matter and this, too, will provide a post-war problem which will have to be faced with courage. Industry needs skill and intelligence in every department.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

SIR,—Not being a schoolmaster I have really no right to intervene in the particular discussion which Mr. Kennard Davis raises concerning the teaching of English. But his letter seems to me to be almost a question of—quite unnecessary—despair. His comparison, by implication, of contemporary writers with Plato, Sophocles, Cicero, and Virgil is bound to be unsatisfactory because the only reason that we now read those very great men is precisely that they were very great men, and that such men occur very rarely through the centuries. It is their style that keeps them alive, and I suppose that since the Classics there have not been more than thirty or forty Europeans at most who can be thought to have a similar style ; the few that Mr. Davis mentions have not many rivals in the five hundred years or so from Plato to Tacitus which his paragraph covers.

That is the first point. The second is that contemporary writers, in any age, are bound to seem controversial, and are likely to be ruled out on that account. For example, one of the great questions of our modern age is the authority of the Christian Church. I do not know how far Mr. Davis would allow modern theologians to enter into his curriculum. I mention this only to point out that writers may be ruled out on other grounds besides their actual style.

Thirdly, I am a little uneasy about Mr. Davis's allusion to " waste lands ". He is not, I imagine, suggesting that Mr. Eliot offers us nothing but waste lands. I should have thought that the later poems and *The Idea of a Christian Society* were precisely " the restatement in worthy (that is artistic) form of the fundamental truths on which our civilization is based ". Or if we are not to be theologically controversial, there is perhaps Conrad and, in poetry, Yeats. I mention these names only in passing, because it is for those skilled in education rather than for me to discuss actual names. If we are comparing contemporary writers with Plato, &c., I very willingly admit that the comparison is difficult. But if we are comparing them with Carlyle and Ruskin I see no reason whatever to think that some of our contemporaries are not, as writers, much better. I do not quite understand whether Mr. Davis considers Carlyle's gospel as much worth attention as Virgil's : I should myself have thought that Carlyle was in some ways much more like the revolutionary party which Cicero denounced than he altogether knew.

The whole point about contemporary literature is that, if there is a Cicero or a Matthew Arnold now alive, we shall have to find him by attention. It is possible that this should be indicated to adolescent readers as part of their job. We know the great of old ; they are all laid down for us. But we have to find the great of to-day. That, it seems to me, is the difference.

CHARLES WILLIAMS.

9 South Parks Road,
Oxford.

THE FUTURE OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

SIR,—In his letter on the Public Schools published in your July issue, Mr. Woolley raises a point of some importance. He claims that the religious atmosphere of a day school need not be inferior to that afforded by a public boarding school. The apologists of the public schools are inclined to stress the unique advantages for religious training which, it is claimed, such schools provide. As Mr. Elder said in *The Journal of Education* of November last : " Third, and most important, is religious training. The public schools avow and strive to practise an education based on the worship of God and the teaching of Christ." One is surely justified in judging institutions by their fruits, and one may therefore ask whether ex-public schoolboys do in their lives and personal conduct show the influence of Christian ideals more generally and to a more marked degree than those who have been educated in any other type of school, whether secondary or elementary. My own impression is that there are little grounds for such an assumption ; but it would be interesting if some one at Oxford or Cambridge who has had large experience of dealing with undergraduates drawn from many types of schools, including the public boarding schools, could give us an unbiassed pronouncement on this point.

The University, Reading. H. C. BARNARD.

SIR,—The very interesting and illuminating discussion and correspondence on the future of public schools, which has now been going on in your hospitable columns for several months, has evidently not reached the eyes of all educationists. In a provincial paper it is reported that the Chairman of the Governing Body of one of the evacuated public schools expressed surprise that people should hold a gloomy view as to their future. He could not share that despondent view. He looked forward with great hope to the future. One would almost think from such a pronouncement that the numbers in many public boarding schools had not really dropped by 30 to 40 per cent, and that all our anxieties were ill-founded ; until one was brought down to earth again by remembering the fact of the war the incidence of a ten-shilling income tax, rising

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prices, the economic revolution thus produced, and all the other problems and factors that are making the very existence of many public boarding schools a very doubtful proposition.

It is really a serious state of affairs when governors of public schools feel no alarm about the future; but it seems to be much of a piece with their obscurantist policy in the past. After the last war, income-tax had risen from 1s. 6d. to 4s. 6d.; schools had lost in their Rolls of Honour very many potential fathers of new pupils; the birth-rate was dwindling; there were wars and rumours of wars; there were economic crises here, there, and everywhere. And yet some of these governing bodies, especially of schools that could least afford it, continued to add playing-field to playing-field, amenity to amenity, and even to build additional boarding accommodation for non-existent boys.

Many of the financial difficulties of the schools to-day are due, in a large degree, to an unwise policy of expansion and extravagance since the last war. Evidently, some governors do not realize even now that, since Munich, income-tax has increased so much that a man with £1,500 a year and two sons at school is now paying about £320 a year extra income-tax, and £50 extra insurance for house and chattels against hostile air raids. That makes boarding-school education for his sons impossible.

The number of boys whose parents could afford boarding-school fees was always limited, and of late years the new public schools, the challenge of the county secondary day schools with splendid buildings and very efficient staffs, and growing financial stringency, had made the number of boys available not quite large enough to go round. That was possibly the excuse made for the extravagant rivalry indulged in to attract boys. Schools frankly admitted that they had to advertise in order to keep up their numbers.

Nowadays the economic crisis has made the position of the less well-endowed schools still more precarious; and many schools, that can least well afford to face critical times, are badly down in numbers and have no real chance of recovering their pre-war prosperity. It is too much to expect that government will send many boys from elementary to public boarding schools; still less that boys from county schools will be spared to public schools for their last two or three years. Some well-placed boarding schools, which have been relying not an endowments but on boys' fees to keep them going, may manage to survive if they can build up a very strong day-boy connexion; but they will not stand a chance of survival as long as their governors take the view that there is no cause for alarm.

"GOVERNOR."

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE STATE

SIR,—There must have been many professionally interested readers who were grateful to Prof. Clarke for his fair and dispassionate analysis of the 'independence' to which the majority of public schools cling as the rock of their salvation. My purpose is to underline that part of his letter which explained that the attitude of "abandon hope all ye who enter here" towards the State system of education is something of a slight to the intelligence and ability of those who administer the system. It is a fact that the ignorance of the State system among the staff and pupils of public schools (I omit members of their governing bodies, since they may have acquired an acquaintance with it by parliamentary or civil service experience) has been until recently both great and widespread.

It is not primarily by knowledge of the administrative machinery of State education that this ignorance should be made good. That is a study which has all the attractions of complexity, but might exercise only a limited appeal as a first approach. It should rather be impressed upon the consciousness of the 'independent' that the increasing importance of local government as opposed to central government has demanded more and more of the personnel

(*Continued on page 344*)

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engaged in local government service, whether as servants or masters; that with all their faults, Education Committees and County Councils have the virtue of being mixtures of people representative of very various professions, environments, and habits of thinking, where the product of the public school and the public elementary school each try in the common interest to be absolute and unprejudiced in their judgments; that Directors or Secretaries of Education, who are in fact responsible for the policy as well as the detail of administration, have to be nowadays men of real vision and mental calibre who at the same time are necessarily in close contact with human problems. Many of these people owe a tremendous amount to their upbringing at 'independent' schools, but have felt a desire to see what can be done for the general good 'behind the barbed wire'.

Has not the time come when the public schools, recognizing that social service is quite as honourable and responsible a calling as civil service, can feel able to join in it and contribute their very valuable potentialities towards the training of leaders for it?

W. E. PHILIP.

7 Heath Court, Pennsylvania Park,
Exeter, South Devon.

THE FUTURE OF THE PRIVATE SCHOOL

SIR,—The suggested new Royal Commission on Public Schools and the Headmaster of Rugby's recent plea for the absorption of elementary school boys into the public schools brought to the forefront the vexed question of the future of the private school. Whether private schools *can* survive, even if allowed to do so by the Government, depends on their ability to "put their house in order" before the war ends. The chief questions to be tackled are staff and curriculum.

Let it be said at once that the staffs of private schools are not satisfactory. There is the usual sprinkling of idealists, men with good degrees who are content to spend their lives in private schools in the belief that they are doing valuable work. These men are far too few. The usual private school staff consists of men with degrees who are hopeless teachers and hopeless disciplinarians, men who have got as far as their 'Inter B.A.' and cannot, for lack of ability or lack of means, finish their degree course, and men totally without training, too often a public school boy resting for a year before going up to Oxford or Cambridge. I have known cases of men who did not even get 'Matric.', teaching boys of 16. Headmasters very often have no degree, and rely on those of their staff or on the fellowship of some society to impress parents. The method of recruitment of staff is all wrong. The educational agencies cannot recommend good men to go to poor schools; neither can they impose poor men on good schools. Most agencies are strictly honourable in their dealings with clients, but some are more interested in their fees than in the quality of the men they send.

Most private schools have only 'resident' posts to offer. In consideration of board and lodging during term, men are required to take supervision duties that may well keep them 'on the go' from 7.30 a.m. till 10 p.m. one or more—generally more—days per week. Week-ends are broken by games duty on Saturdays and Sunday duty. The pay ranges from £60 to £150 per annum, less insurance. From an examination of 500 agency notices, I can state definitely that £75–£80 is the usual salary for men with experience. This is not good enough. Men have to support themselves in the holidays, and after that there is very little left. There is no pension scheme—or very rarely—with the result that men have either to work on after their usefulness is gone, and most often at a miserable pittance, or go into the workhouse, as has happened to two men, personally known to me, within the last two years.

The feeding and housing of staffs are far too often unsatisfactory. Men are, therefore, constantly changing posts, taking a post that offers slightly better conditions and another £5 per annum. Thus there is no continuity of teaching or tradition, with results that are very evident to all who have to deal with private schools. The curriculum is ruled by no known system; 'the College of Preceptors' too often dictates the courses. Their examinations are not sufficient to launch a boy on a successful career. If schools aim at a higher standard, the School Certificate or Matric. is the apex of the curriculum. Greek is almost unknown; Latin is rapidly failing; cultural courses are practically unknown. The 'Library' is too often a repository for out-of-date cheap manuals and the cheaper 'throw-outs' from Boots' Library. Pictures are mainly school groups: music is a period of riot and noise, with an overworked master trying to restore order and keep the noise within bounds.

In a Government school, a man knows that he has security of tenure. In a private school a man is liable to dismissal on the whim of the headmaster or his wife. Tale-bearing is all too frequent, and the scramble for favour is a disgrace to men in an honourable profession. Should I have used that word 'profession'? Surely the whole root of the trouble is that masters in private schools cannot regard themselves as 'professional men', for they lack all that goes to make 'the professional spirit'. Some new arrangement must be made to give security of tenure '*dum se bene gesserit*'. With this is bound up the question of references. I knew a man who applied for a post. His headmaster, who was very annoyed at losing a good man, refused to give him a written reference but said he might refer headmasters to him. One headmaster showed him the letter of reference sent, which would have damned an archangel. It was untrue in most of its particulars and only a solicitor's letter stopped this vile form of blackmail. But how many headmasters have got away with a similar trick?

Reform is urgently needed; if the reform does not come from within, from joint action by heads and assistants, then it will be forced on the schools from without and the whole system of private schools will disappear in a flood of Government reports and public disapproval.

"ARTIUM MAGISTER."

14 TO 18

SIR,—The general public (including parents) has been given little indication of any reasons for the extension of school life.

Here are some questions often asked. Don't the secondary and technical schools take from the elementary schools all who can reasonably be expected to benefit from staying at school after the age of 14? If not, can't their intake be increased until they do? Won't there be a residue (variously estimated at 10 per cent, 50 per cent, and 80 per cent) for whom education after the age of 14 will be a waste of time? Wouldn't it be better for some to leave school at 12, particularly if resources were thereby released for training those who would benefit? What are they to be taught in the extra time?

Direct replies are seldom given. Debating success may be secured by asking other questions such as these. How many rich men take their sons, however stupid, from school at 14, or even 16? Why should the children of the poor be flung into the maelstrom of industry at an age when their physical and emotional development is most disturbing? Why should employers obtain cheap child-labour while millions of men are unemployed?

Is there not a confusion of meanings? 'School' in the public mind means 'place for being taught', while to the social reformer it means (as it did when the word was young) 'place of leisure' or 'place of safety'.

Here are some propositions which seem to me to be true and which form the basis on which I set proposals.

1. Because of a fallen birth-rate and because of the war there will be fewer children for at least 15 years. Therefore each child will be more valuable.

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2. An increase in the proportion of old people will tend to throw additional burdens on those who are fit to work. Therefore it may be necessary for entry into working life not to be postponed.

3. Restrictions on employment may alter the incidence of unemployment but only locally and temporarily. They cannot effect a cure.

4. Increased power of production should not result in much more leisure for all until we have overtaken (*a*) war losses, (*b*) pre-war deficiencies, *e.g.* slums. Anyway we Anglo-Saxons need to work for our health.

5. Children must be made less of a financial burden to their parents, even if they cannot become again financial assets.

6. Activity and experience are more valuable than instruction.

PROPOSALS

1. Employment under the age of 18 to be part-time and to be looked on as educational activity and experience. The poor and the less gifted not to have too much of it and the rich and the academically minded not to be deprived of it entirely.

(*Note.*—I consider that I was lucky to have had opportunities for work as a farm labourer during my school-days in the last war.)

2. Thus the establishment of continuation schools is more important than, although not incompatible with, the raising of the upper age-limit for full-time schooling, but it is essential that the continuation school should :

(*a*) Be a focus for corporate life.

(*b*) Drop the word ' continuation ' from its title.

3. Variety of organization to be preferred to tidiness of system. Voluntary bodies, commercial firms, &c., to be entitled to register schools, and to receive financial aid subject to their satisfying inspectors.

4. Organization not to outrun supply of suitable staff. Successful welfare officers, club leaders, &c., to be welcomed even if they are not trained teachers.

5. Activities to be creative, recreative, cultural, and vocational. Some classes to be arranged in co-operation with technical colleges.

SOME BENEFITS

Even secondary schools would benefit from contacts with reality. Some of us would be prepared to allow much of the intellectual work to be voluntary if by other activities the lesson could be learnt that there is something called Work which has to be done.

Vocational guidance would be sounder if the subjects had tried more than one type of job.

Foreign schoolmasters envy us the association of loyalties and interests with our secondary schools. Should we not extend to all young people the right to pride in the school tie ?

S. J. DALE.

Gillingham County School for Boys,
at Rhymney, Mon.

HOW THE COLONIES JOINED THE EMPIRE

SIR,—I should not have troubled you further but for the fact that your reviewer asks for a reference, a somewhat odd request from one who, presumably, has a copy of the booklet at his elbow. However, the slave trade is referred to on pages 29, 42, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48 and 50. I have not made an exhaustive search and it is possible that your reviewer may discover some other references if and when he comes to read the booklet.

There remains only the question of Lord Croft's use of the words " the native races ", and your reviewer finds in my defence of Lord Croft evidence that I am incapable of writing wisely or responsibly about the British Empire. I lay no claim to wisdom, but if there is anything irresponsible in what I have hitherto written your critic has not put his finger upon it.

I am well aware that the use of the word ' natives ' gives offence, but your reviewer does not reveal that the words quoted are used by Lord Croft for the special purpose of differentiating the internal troubles of India from their disputes with races from outside and in this connexion it is very unlikely to give offence to any responsible person, Indian or otherwise, but only to those who are anxious to find some peg upon which to hang a complaint.

W. A. WELLS.

Empire Industries Association,
9 Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1.

EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

RELIGION AND SCHOOL REFORM IN FRANCE

RELIGION is once again to be taught in the French schools. This shows that Marshal Pétain is at least trying to take a middle path and is not prepared to go over to a Nazi system 100 per cent.

The change in education in France is well worth considering for a moment. As in every other country, those in power have always wanted to get hold of the youth. French politics have been divided for years over the clerical question, and, while the Right has tended towards clericalism, the Left has been opposed to it.

Religious teaching was abolished many years ago, and only in Roman Catholic schools could children obtain a religious education. At the same time priests were not allowed to teach, and the teachers had to be laymen.

After 1918, when Alsace came back to France, religious teaching continued to be taught in its schools but the first Government of the Popular Front, under Monsieur Léon Blum, tried to modify and rearrange the system. Blum insisted that the schools would have to come into line with the other schools throughout the country, and, while not taking away the right of religious education, he said that its teaching would either have to be done outside the usual school-time, or that the children would have to stay in school one year longer so that they did not miss learning other subjects through the teaching of religion. Monsieur Blum was violently attacked by the Right for this.

Before 1901, when France had a State religion, all churches, including the Jewish, received Government grants. After that date the grants stopped.

Certainly Protestant and Jewish children will not be expected to take Roman Catholic lessons, and there is no doubt that special arrangements will be made so that these two sects at least receive some religious education. The teaching of the Jewish religion will, however, fit into the general plan of Jewish legislation which is now under consideration and is being conducted by Xavier Vallet, a notorious anti-Judaist. Quite recently he stated that France would have to come into line with the rest of Europe on the Jewish question, which means, of course, that the Jews are to be segregated, and the children either sent to special schools which must be supported by the Jewish community or given special benches apart from other children.

It is interesting to note that it was Xavier Vallet who protested vehemently against Blum as Prime Minister on account of his being a Jew.

The reintroduction of religious education is however indicative of the unrest which followed demands that French children should be taught along purely German lines.

This included the purging of the teaching profession, more attention to physical training, a reduction in the

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number of university students, and the teaching of the three R's. as the basis of general education. Young workers would then be sent into agriculture or trade with the ability to read, write, and add, and no more than that.

Marcel Déat, writing at the time, did not like the idea at all. Déat insisted that the defeat of France was not due to too much intellectualism but to " intellectual decadence ".

" Don't believe that gymnastics won the war ", he wrote. " German sport is not something apart from her social, economic, and political system. It is only a tool of development among all these. Please let's not start building up the new France on the ritualistic worship of the muscular to the scorn of true culture and therefore of intelligence. Hercules had a small head, and to tell the truth he was as stupid as he was good. He would make a bad patron saint for the new France." S. H. KAHN.

SCHOOL-DAYS IN GERMANY

AT the beginning of this century it was a common custom for English parents to send their daughters to Germany to learn the language and to study music. There must be many Englishwomen of my generation who have vivid memories of the Germany of those days—memories that are perhaps difficult to reconcile with what we know of the country now. At that time, all English school-girls who loved music looked on Germany as a kind of semi-Paradisal land, where people did nothing but attend magnificent concerts and hear glorious operas, and where every one lived more or less in a perpetual dream of lovely sound. There were no Secret Police then, no Concentration Camps, no blustering Storm Troopers . . . and, though the people were disciplined and kept in order, they were not *afraid*. Families were not rent asunder by different political views. There was no treachery between brothers and sisters, children and parents, such as now makes family life insecure, and almost intolerable.

The town where I spent a happy year at the age of 17 was a most attractive one—very clean, with wide roads and tall houses whose window-boxes were always gay with flowers throughout the summer. It was bordered by well-kept pine-woods where we loved to feed the squirrels and birds. (" Well-kept pine-woods ! " you may think. . . . " How typically German ! " Well, perhaps so—but wasn't their extreme tidiness better than woods strewn with paper, bottles, and tins ?) There was a huge covered market, with a gallery running round it—so full of life and bustle, with peasant women in their gay costumes selling fruit and poultry and vegetables, and everywhere the most extraordinary and unfamiliar smells ! Here we bought all kinds of fascinating trifles—ribbons and buttons and little china figures, queer little cakes and biscuits, and marzipan made up in shapes of animals and flowers, and all sorts of other things. And of course there were many open-air Beer Gardens, where we were sometimes allowed to sit under the trees and drink excellent coffee, and where in winter we learnt to skate in the long dark afternoons, under the light of fairy-lamps, to the playing of a first-class band.

I remember, too, the friendliness of the girls at the big high school where we went for gym. classes . . . and our piano master, who wore fierce upturned moustaches like the Kaiser, but was really the mildest of men. His most devastating rebuke for wrong notes and awkward fingers was usually—" But, come, come, dear Miss, what will the Mamma in England say ? " And chiefly I remember our kind, stout, brown-eyed singing mistress, who had what I can only describe as an *enormous* soprano voice, and whose husband was chief baritone at the State Opera House. Great was our excitement when we were taken to hear him in a leading role, and greater still when we were invited, four or five at a time, to one of the musical ' At Homes ' that they gave periodically in their comfortable and spacious flat. There were usually from twenty to thirty people at these parties, many of them musicians with a big local reputation ; but always we, the little group of English school-girls, aged from 16 to 18, were treated as special guests of honour. Always there came to one or more of us the fearful moment when we were invited to sit for awhile on the sofa, that sacred seat in every German household, never to be occupied without special invitation from the hostess. When this great mark of favour was bestowed upon us, we were, of course, expected to converse politely with any other guest or guests who might already be established there—and even those who spoke fairly fluent German were apt to find it deserting them at such a crisis.

But the most embarrassing mark of esteem came at tea-time, when at one end of the table would be placed a coffee-urn, and at the other an immense teapot for the benefit of ourselves alone. And while the rest of the company drank fragrant coffee with masses of whipped cream floating on it, we were handed cups of a yellowish, lukewarm, and absolutely tasteless liquid which our hostess proudly described as " English tea ", made specially for us. We drank it, of course, with expressions of deep gratitude—and consoled ourselves with the cakes. Any one who knew Germany then will remember what they were like, and for the sake of others I will not attempt to describe them : it wouldn't be fair, in war-time. When tea was over, the guests made music for one another—first, usually a duet from our host and hostess, and then song after song, melody after melody, from 'cello, violin, or piano : just spontaneous music-making for the sheer love of it. We school-girls listened in wordless rapture, and were finally sent home all aglow with excitement and gratitude. That was Germany as it used to be—and at a time, too, when political feeling was violently anti-British, owing to the South African War.

Of course no one could want to reconstruct the old Germany of forty years ago in detail. The world has moved on, and all countries have to develop along their own individual lines. But we may feel sad to think that no English mother could dream of sending her child to school in Germany now. It is German and Austrian mothers who have had to send *their* children to England, not only for education, but for safety ! And we may sometimes wonder what has become of that old spirit of friendliness and kindliness, that attractive simplicity of life, well known to so many English people in bygone years. Can it have been entirely stamped out of existence by Hitler and his Gestapo ?

We know, of course, that fear is an enemy to kindness, and without doubt the minds of the German people have been embittered and poisoned by fear. I heard some one say, soon after war broke out, that they must be " a nation of nit-wits " to have put themselves in the power of such a leader—and I sympathized with the speaker ! But, in fact, they are not nit-wits, even if they are sheep, as their leader himself has said. And yet, perhaps not all, and not entirely, sheep ; though we have to remember that those who are anti-Nazi and anti-war are not necessarily pro-British. Too much poison-propaganda has been poured into German minds during the last eight years for that to be possible, and it is strange, and rather distressing, to think that, after the war, our worst enemies will probably be the millions of school children who have been taught to distrust and despise everything British. It will not be easy to find an antidote to all this poison, which seems to have thrown the nation into a drugged stupor that has given birth to nightmares spreading over the whole of Europe.

Yet this stupor cannot last for ever, and, when other countries are freed from their nightmares, surely in Germany, too, the people will arouse themselves and find that they have had enough of darkness. Surely we may hope that their desire then will be for the light to shine once more in their beautiful land. We who remember it *as it used to be* must not let those memories altogether fade away, for they give us some hope for the future.

It is an interesting point that, according to one derivation, the word ' German ' means ' shouter '—from an old Celtic word, meaning a loud cry or shout. The German best

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known to us to-day is certainly a ' shouter ', but we have ' shouters ', too—both here and across the seas—and in the end we shall prove that we can shout louder than they can, and that what we shout is truth. We must go on shouting until this truth rings through the whole world, so compelling, so inescapable, that at last the deaf ears will hear and the blind eyes be opened. And *then* the German nation may be able to take a sane and balanced view of the events of recent years, and once more to possess its own soul.

Only when this happens can the best of the old Germany unite with the best of the new, and prepare, however slowly and painfully, to join with other nations in building a New World, whose emblem shall be the Rose of Love, and whose banners shall proclaim Truth and Tolerance and Joy through that highest form of Freedom which is . . . Willing Service. EVA MARTIN.

EDUCATIONAL JOURNALS OF NEW ZEALAND

By Dr. H. C. McQUEEN, New Zealand Council for Educational Research

A DOMINION with a population of barely one and a half million cannot be expected to support more than a limited number of periodicals of any kind, let alone serious journals of the educational variety. There are in fact three such journals in New Zealand, but none of them is, or sets out to be, self-supporting ; all depend on the organizations that sponsor them for their continued maintenance.

The *Education Gazette* is an official monthly sent free to every school in New Zealand. It contains official notices, and lists of vacancies for which applications are invited. Needless to say, most teachers turn to these advertisements first, not only in the monthly issue, but in the supplement normally available on the fifteenth of each month. (The supplement, it should be said, contains little but vacancy lists.) In its present form the *Gazette* contains a good deal more, however, and the April number has articles on the geometry of the sundial, making models with the fretsaw, biology in schools, conservation of natural resources, and in the ' Native Schools' Column ' an account of an experiment in adult native education. The authors are not officers of the Education Department, but teachers who have ideas to communicate to their fellows. In the order of the topics given above the occupations of the writers are : woodwork teacher, crafts instructor, science master, lecturer in agriculture, and headmaster of a native school. Although at the moment a new editorial policy, and a new format, are under consideration, it can be said that even in its present form the *Gazette* is much more useful and readable than some of the dull official publications of a similar kind that are produced in other parts of the world.

A New Zealander inclines either to consider his local intellectual products as much inferior to those of older countries, or to look on them with an air of satisfaction, expressed modestly in a common colonial phrase " Not so bad ". I have no hesitation in lining up with the second group in commenting on *National Education*, the organ of the New Zealand Educational Institute, for it compares more than favourably with other teachers' journals. It is a readable monthly, and, although its slant is always towards the primary school (the institute consists almost entirely of primary school teachers), it draws on contributors with a wide range of experience in various fields—many of them not teachers. It is indeed read by numbers of people outside the teaching service, for it is almost the only monthly in New Zealand in which articles of general interest are published. Apart from the portions given to teacher-politics—and these are presented in good journalistic style—the March issue has articles on " Sense and Sentences—the General Nature of Grammar ", " In Praise of Rebels ", " The Shape of Ads. to Come " (by the publicity adviser to the National Savings Committee in Great Britain), " It's the Rain that Does It " (by a scientist engaged in research), " Art and Books and Boys and Girls " (by a librarian), " New Entrants—Reminiscences ", " Home is What You See in It " (by an economist), " Progress and the Mechanised Arts " (by a ciné-photographer), " We Make It Ourselves " (by a journalist). The articles make good reading, whether one is a teacher or not, and it is not difficult to imagine the use that an energetic teacher could make of the information in them. So far as I know there is no educational paper in Great Britain that resembles *National Education* ; the *Schoolmaster*, which is the organ of the comparable body of teachers, is a weekly, and devotes much more space to teacher-politics and to articles designed as direct teaching aids.

There is a more noticeable resemblance between *S.T.A.*, the journal of the post-primary teachers, and *A.M.A.* New Zealand post-primary teachers are organized in two main groups, the Secondary Schools Association, and the Technical School Teachers' Association. Both of these include principals and assistants, but there is a subsidiary association of secondary school assistants. All combine to finance a paper appearing six times a year. Two issues are usually given mainly to remits to be discussed at the annual conferences, and to reports of those conferences. The other issues, apart from matters of domestic interest to the association members, give space for teaching articles, and to book reviews, which consistently get proportionately more attention than is given in the other journals.

We in New Zealand have no scope for the production of an English *Journal of Education*, of a Columbia *Teachers' College Record*, or of a Washington *School Life*. Our educational journalism must necessarily be restricted to periodicals that cannot be classified with much that is familiar to educationists elsewhere. Close comparison of New Zealand papers with others is therefore not as a rule possible, but as a New Zealander who sees a considerable number of educational periodicals I may be permitted to think that ours are ' not so bad '.

NEW ZEALAND AND THE TEACHERS

ACCORDING to *S.T.A.*, the official organ of the New Zealand Secondary Schools' Association, the Minister of Education has found himself unable to meet the wishes of the Association with respect to many matters on which he was approached. The Education Department was urged to make financial grants for subjects other than science, such money to be used for approved purposes, *e.g.* in history, the purchase of current periodicals and special text-books ; capitation grants of at least 2s. 6d. for library purposes were also asked for. The reply was to the effect that further expenditure on these matters could not be considered during the war period. A resolution " That a new salary scale for post-primary teachers should be regarded as a matter of urgency, and should be such as to offer at least equal attractions and opportunities to those in the Primary Service " met, owing to Treasury opposition, with no better fate ; nor did a request that, for purposes of superannuation, active service should be regarded as double time. In answer to a request that teachers in charge of school activities should be paid out-of-pocket travelling expenses, it was said that this appeared to be a matter for the games or sports clubs of the various schools. " Teachers are probably aware that no part of any funds supplied by the Government can be devoted to meet the expenses of any sports or games activities."

In the matter of Educational Publicity, however, the wishes of the Association have been met, and it is suggested that one of the most effective means of securing the required publicity would be to make use of Youth Centre organizations, Vocational Guidance Officers, and Careers Teachers. The possibility of using the Broadcasting Service in order to disseminate information is also being considered.

Discussions are also taking place regarding the implementation of the 5 per cent cost-of-living bonus. The Association asked for 5 per cent all round, or, failing this, 5 per cent on salaries up to £300 and thereafter £15 flat ;

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but the Government preferred to grant a £13 bonus to all over 18 years of age, single or married, with salaries up to £335, the bonus thereafter disappearing for each £3 of salary in excess of £335. It was promised that overtime and other extras would not be taken into consideration in determining salary for bonus purposes, but the Association states that this promise has not been kept. For example, a teacher's normal salary is £335; he augments this by overtime of, say, £30; his bonus drops from £13 to £3. Somewhat the same result follows from the inclusion of the married allowance in the calculation.

The Chief Inspector of Secondary Schools, Mr. E. J. Parr, who has earned the very warm regard of the profession, is retiring. Mr. E. Caradus, an old boy of Auckland Grammar School and a graduate of Auckland University College, has been appointed to succeed him.

S. B. L.

CANADA'S GUESTS

THE publication entitled *Canada's Guests*, issued by the Canadian Pacific Railway, contains some twenty very interesting photographs depicting the activities of the children who, under the Children's Overseas Reception Scheme, have become part of the families in the Dominion. No fewer than 1,530 boys and girls have been sent to Canada under this scheme, which has just celebrated its anniversary. Children from all parts of the United Kingdom, from poor families and from middle-class homes, have settled down well, though all was not happy in the first few months. But the latest reports show that, with very few exceptions, all the children are happy and contented. In many districts doctors and dentists are giving their services, and hospital treatment has been given where necessary. Hobbies and craftsmanship are being encouraged. The question of training and employment is now arising for many of the older boys and girls, and careful consideration is being given to this matter through consultation between the parent-hosts, the Dominion authorities, and the parents at home.

U.S.A.

ACCORDING to the February *Phi Delta Kappan*, overwhelming support of America's educational philosophy and aims was registered in a recent survey of American opinion. The American public, in general: (1) favours the present-day programme of public education; (2) believes that the public school should offer fair and equal opportunities to all youth; (3) favours a special programme for unemployed youth not in school; (4) is for freedom in teaching and learning; (5) will not be satisfied with a static educational programme.

More specific opinions were expressed as follows: Education is not over-emphasized to-day (73 per cent); discussion of controversial topics among young people approved (72 per cent); physical examinations for all children should be made every two or three years at public expense (86 per cent); as much tax money should be spent for Negro children as for whites (78 per cent); "quite a few high-school students should be working instead of at school" (54 per cent).

Half the replies agree that certain States are so poor that they cannot afford schools as good as those in other parts of the country, and 28 per cent of these would be willing to pay higher taxes to supply these States with federal aid. Such aid to poor families for educational purposes was approved by 72 per cent.

S. B. L.

ARGENTINA

A COMMITTEE set up by the Argentine Government to inquire into the conditions of the schools has brought an interesting minority report from Dr. Prospero G. Alemandri. Unlike his colleagues who ask for certain changes, but whose report is generally favourable, he declares that the condition of the schools in some parts of the country is deplorable. In one school for 750 children, the doctor found conditions, sanitation, everything in fact, appalling. Old buildings were used, children could not learn because they were both uncomfortable and unhealthy.

At Las Brenas he said 994 children were not being taught in a school at all but in the ruins of a school. They seem to have been forgotten, and, while the building crumbled round them, the teachers tried to teach. No repairs were ever made. At Quitilipi, 851 children were taught in a school which would take just about one-tenth of that number.

The newspapers have ignored the Committee Report, are printing the minority report, and demanding an immediate improvement.

S. H. K.

NEW MEDIA

AN EXPERIMENT WITH FILMS

II.—Testing the Retention-value of Film Tuition

By GLADSTONE DUNKERLEY

PROPERLY used, film tuition is almost bound to show superiority over non-film methods, since the film has such powerful potentialities as a means of instruction. In the experiment described in the last article this was amply borne out in the results of an immediate test of knowledge imparted by film and non-film techniques, the average score for the film-taught children being 8·5 per cent higher than that of the non-film children. But the main value of film methods of tuition is claimed in the higher retention which these methods produce; it is not the mere vividness of the film, producing stronger immediate memory, which is the justification for the use of films in schools, it is the real long-term remembering which the films can induce. This means that the film technique can present material in such a way that it can be remembered for a longer time, and that it must therefore be more understandable or absorbable. This theory was tested in the experiment previously described by giving a delayed test six weeks after the immediate test. The test was given under the same conditions, at the same time of day, and, since the examination paper set for the immediate test had not been revised in any way after the test, and since it was retention or memory which was being tested, the same examination paper was used. The children seemed to find it harder to answer the questions than in the immediate test, which was to be expected, but nevertheless they seemed consciously to try to remember the facts rather than write down the first answers which came to mind. They were allowed the same time for answering the paper as in the case of the immediate test.

Analysis of Results

The marks obtained in the delayed retention test ranged from 28 per cent to 85 per cent for the class as a whole, *i.e.* both groups together, this range being made up of one of 45 per cent to 85 per cent in the Film Group and 28 per cent to 77 per cent in the Non-film Group. It will be seen that the range of marks for the two groups together has decreased only slightly during the six weeks' interval, and the extreme distributions of the film and non-film children has also remained much the same, there being four film children at the top of the list and five non-film children at the bottom. There was one surprising fact which emerged from analysis of the marks, and that was that there had been a general increase in the marks obtained for the delayed test compared with those obtained in the immediate test. It is in both groups that this increase took place, as witness the fact that the average score in the F Group had risen by

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9·1 per cent, being now 70·5 per cent, and the fact that the average score for the NF Group had risen by 6·7 per cent, being now 58·9 per cent. It will be noticed, however, that the average for the F Group had risen to a greater extent than that for the NF Group, meaning that there is now a greater difference between the averages of the two groups, this difference being now 11·6 per cent as opposed to the previous difference of 8·5 per cent.

One possible explanation of the all-round increase in the average mark is that the children discussed the questions amongst themselves after the immediate test, but a more probable explanation in the present case is that for the delayed test the children were compelled to think more deeply over the questions and put down answers which seemed not only familiar but also logical. In the case of the immediate test, where the work had been done only a short time beforehand, the children probably relied on the immediate memory to supply the answers, without taking much notice of the logic of their thought. Logic cannot, of course, act as a substitute for knowledge, but, where there is a possibility of two or three answers being offered as correct, logic can help in deciding which is to be written down as probably right. An answer which has been sifted mentally from remembered facts as being the most likely will probably eventually be remembered as being the actual correct answer as opposed to a possible answer which has been rejected on the grounds of absurdity. It is probable that some such mental reasoning or unconscious process as this had gone on in the minds of the children to produce more correct answers than was the case with the immediate test where first attempts at remembering were taken as being correct.

Numerous other experiments have been performed in recent years to investigate this question of retention, and the data from twenty-four different experimental comparisons offer valuable evidence on this point. The experiments were direct comparisons of the effectiveness of film and non-film techniques, like the experiment described in these articles, and the children in these twenty-four experiments were tested very soon after the presentation of the material and again after periods ranging from a few weeks to several months. The results are worth examining in some detail.

In thirteen of the comparisons there was an increase, from the immediate test to the retention test, in the superiority of the film technique over the non-film technique; in nine cases there was no relative change in the superiority of the film technique over the non-film from immediate test to retention test. This leaves only two of the twenty-four comparisons as showing an increase in the value of the non-film technique with respect to the film technique over the period of time between the immediate test and the retention test. In point of fact, both these increases in the apparent superiority of the non-film technique over the film technique from the immediate to retention results were due to a decrease in the superiority of the film technique alone, from immediate to delayed tests. In no case, therefore, did the non-film technique increase in value compared with the film technique in the retention test.

General Conclusions

It has been said that " three of the most important merits of the film method are its ability to create lasting impressions, to provide clarity of thought and presentation, and to furnish experience by which the subject-matter may be remembered longer and understood better ". The findings of the experiment described bear out this conclusion, since the gain of the film-taught children over the orally-taught in the immediate test showed that the film method has the advantage of clarity of presentation and ability to create impressions which were more vivid than it was possible to produce by other means. In the immediate test the question as to whether or not films permit of longer memory cannot be decided, since the difference in the average scores for the two groups was in itself not great enough to have such a significance. The other indications, however, such as the general gain in position of the children placed in the Film Group, and the corresponding loss in position of the children placed in the Non-film Group with regard to a normal science test, as well as the distribution of the groups within the total scores for the test, show that there has been a better understanding, even at that stage, on the part of the children in the Film Group and that therefore we might reasonably expect better retention on the part of these children over a long period.

In experiments carried out by other investigators delay periods of up to several months were used, and the fact that six weeks only had elapsed between the immediate and retention tests in the present experiment would preclude any startling result. Nevertheless, the tendency is clearly shown in that the difference between the average of the two groups has increased over that time, showing that the experimental results are of increasing significance as time goes on. The distribution of the scores is altering, and grouping is taking place round the 50 per cent line roughly, yet the extreme distributions are relatively unaltered, and the tendency for the film scores to remain relatively higher than the non-film scores is clearly seen. This tendency indicates that a test taken after a further period of time would show that the film scores are stabilizing in a higher position than the non-film scores, *i.e.* that the film-taught children are remembering better and longer as a consequence of having understood better in the first place. This, of course, is a theoretical conclusion which can be proved only by a further delayed test, but it is a conclusion which is not without foundation in view of the indications which have been found.

There seems, therefore, no doubt about the value of the film in teaching, provided that it is properly integrated into the curriculum. The ' particular ' film, as opposed to the general or ' background ' film, needs especial care in this respect if it is to have maximum value. The use of films, especially in science subjects, is not to be undertaken in haphazard or casual fashion; if this is done, films become mere entertainment and a waste of valuable time which would be more profitably used in ordinary aided oral teaching methods. Films can, without any great alteration or upset of existing teaching techniques or time-tables, be used to great advantage, the one great advantage being that they can give lasting and vivid impressions of knowledge to be gained in a way which the best of teachers cannot better.

Broadcasts to Schools.—In announcing the publication of its Annual Programme of Broadcasts to Schools for 1941–42, the B.B.C. points out that, despite war-time conditions and enemy action, the School Broadcasting Service has been maintained without interruption. For 1941–42—the third " educational year " of the war—the programme has again been planned on a yearly basis. The News Commentary for Schools has proved popular with schools and the general public alike and it has been decided to continue it in the intervals between the normal school broadcasting terms. During the three school broadcasting terms, which extend over thirty-five weeks, there will be, in addition to the daily News Commentary, thirty broadcasts a week intended for children of varying ages and in different types of school. The broadcasts vary from " Music and Movement " and " Let's Join In ! ", intended for Infants, on the one hand, to series like " Intermediate French ", " Talks for Fifth Forms " on " Science and the Community " and " Talks for Sixth Forms ", intended for senior secondary school pupils. Between these extremes there are ten series intended for children in junior schools, eight for children in senior schools and six intended for a wide range of children in both junior and senior schools. Most of the main subjects in the school curriculum figure in the programme, and among special features is a series on

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" If You Were American ", with scripts prepared by Nora Waln, the distinguished American writer. The special provision for Welsh and Scottish schools will be continued with broadcasts in Welsh on Mondays at 11.20 a.m. and a series for Scottish schools on Fridays at 11.25 a.m., which will include broadcasts on Scottish literature, folk-lore, history and music, as well as the customary speech-training. Teachers may obtain a copy of the Programme of Broadcasts to Schools on application to the Secretary, Central Council for School Broadcasting, Bedford College for Women, Regent's Park, London, N.W. 1.

A Great Broadcasting Enterprise.—Our own B.B.C. serves the interests of education within our own borders, and does very useful work for many schools and many individuals. This remark applies to a large proportion of other items than those specifically meant for schools. For similar work on the grand scale we have to cross the Atlantic. The quarterly digest of the C.B.S. (Columbia Broadcasting System) gives an account, in an article entitled " Radio School of the Americas," of a movement designed to cover the whole western hemisphere. We learn that " the first international conference of the new School of the Air of the Americas was held by C.B.S., in co-operation with the Pan-American Union and the National Education Association of the United States, on February 27 and 28, and March 1, 1941 ". The conference " brought together about four thousand leaders in education, radio, and government, to witness the newest developments in educational, musical and news broadcasting ". Participating in the sessions were the American Museums of Natural History, the Museum of Modern Art, and the Institute of International Education. The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace made possible the attendance of delegates of many of the twenty-two American nations that are included in the operations of the School of the Air of the Americas. The impressive addresses which were delivered encourage the hope that this great enterprise will bring incalculable benefits, not only to the New World, but in turn to the Old World as well.

TOPICS AND EVENTS

ASSOCIATION OF EDUCATION COMMITTEES

PERHAPS the most significant of the resolutions passed at the annual general meeting of the Association of Education Committees was that on religious education. While affirming its desire that the religious teaching now universally given in the public elementary schools should be efficient, and welcoming all reasonable constructive proposals to that end, the Association also reaffirmed its policy of resistance to the introduction of denominational teaching in provided schools or any right of entry into council schools by representatives of denominational bodies. Mr. T. A. Warren, in moving the resolution, said it proclaimed above all things that the Association was resolved upon Christian teaching in its schools. There was not the remotest suggestion that the teachers had failed, or any recognition of the bigots who attacked the system of the Council School —people who were the worst enemies of the cause they sought to serve. They insulted the Council school teachers to whom the precept of Christian ideology was the outstanding influence of their lives' work. He did not like inspection by religious inspectors. Human beings were doing the teaching, but only God could inspect the spirit. There were dangers in the suggestion that such teaching should be undertaken only by those willing and competent to perform it, for it meant that some one would have to test that willingness and competence; and it was impossible to test Spirit. Christian thought must change with the changing times. Many of them believed that only a new order founded on the Sermon on the Mount could deliver mankind from the social, industrial amd political evils that beset us. Professor Joseph Jones, in seconding, pointed out that " religious " and not " Christian " was the word used in the resolution. The real issue was how was it all to be implemented. Why did the Government not institute an inquiry by Royal Commission or Departmental Committee into the whole subject? Canon E. F. Braley insisted on the right of the child not to be cluttered up with the denominational differences of his elders. All the essentials of the Christian faith for children could be presented within the bounds of the Cowper-Temple clause. The debate shows a healthy reaction against unfounded allegations and undue clerical claims.

LING PHYSICAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

AT the Course in Physical Education arranged by the Ling Physical Education Association at Leeds University on Saturday, July 5, Professor Frank Smith, Department of Education, Leeds University, who was among the lecturers, chose as his subject " The Broad Aspect of the Youth Movement." The efficiency, detailed organization and discipline of the German Youth Movement had aroused much interest in this country since its development from 1933 onwards, had even aroused some desire to imitate many of its methods. But there was also much doubt. Our social and political ideals were alien to a mass movement which organized not only the physical energies but also the mental activity of its members on a predetermined pattern. " England has been the pioneer in voluntary movements ", said Professor Smith, " and holds them in well-deserved regard. The very mention of a national youth movement is suspect in some quarters, and we have seen criticism and antagonism centring round the new proposals. Some of the voluntary organizations seem to fear absorption or supersession."

With the growth of provision for the youth movement many changes in the national system of education were promised; these included an extension of the school-leaving age and a provision of part-time day continuation schools which would cover the period to 18. These developments would profoundly affect the voluntary organizations. There might be less time for participation in these organizations, as had happened in the case of secondary schools. But the schools were changing. Education must everywhere take account of the social background. School was a social agency in a way never contemplated in the nineteenth century, in medical care, the provision of meals, association with national efforts, and vocational guidance; as the age range extended, the school, more and more concerned with cultural, recreational, and social activities, must come into closer contact with the voluntary bodies that had been trying to meet the need.

Educationally the youth movement must be based on the nature of young people. No single pattern, no isolated specialisms, no exclusive bias would do. The outlines of the physical, intellectual, emotional, social or idealistic stirrings of youth were well known; as we interpreted the psychology text-books in terms of our own remembered youth we were tempted to stress this or that, but we must be wise enough to realize the increasing individual differences. The new powers of the body, the new curiosity, the new emotions, the new dreams of a finer world—these forces were so wide that they permitted of an unlimited number of individual patterns, and the teacher, the leader, must impose less and less as the shaping life undertook more and more. That was why leadership was so difficult.

" I hope," concluded Professor Smith, " that the great voluntary organizations will continue to play their part in the new developments. In them is one of the safeguards of variety and experiment. I hope that state grants will

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help them to be efficiently equipped in the material requirements of their work and leave them their autonomy; I hope that membership of a voluntary organization will be regarded as discharging a part of the obligations of compulsion; I hope that the voluntary organizations will, as partners in a large scheme, feel their own vigour reinforced."

Dr. G. Prince, Assistant School Medical Officer, Leeds, discussing "Co-operation between the School Medical Officer and the Gymnastic Teacher", stressed the necessity for consultation between the two in matters of health education and hygiene. She commented on the desirability of careful classification of children for physical education; the provision of modified syllabuses for those with physical disabilities; and recommended an extension of the practice of remedial gymnastics in schools. She expressed a wish to see a Medical Chair in Physical Education established at one of the universities, with post-graduate courses and diplomas for medical men and women undertaking the supervision of physical education. There were certain misconceptions still prevalent in medical circles as to the aims and objects of modern gymnastics; these lingering prejudices should be removed.

Dr. Burbury, Medical Director, Manchester Child Guidance Clinic, spoke on "Interactions of Mind and Body". She traced the development of the child through stages of physical and emotional awareness, giving interesting instances of the inevitability of interdependence of mind and body. Physical development could never be an end in itself. The Nazi Youth Movement was bound to be a failure because it made this error; there was a danger that the present craze for "Keep Fit" had the same tendency.

Practical classes in Dancing, Gymnastics, and Organized Games were taken by experts at the course which was attended by over one hundred teachers of gymnastics in the north-east. The course is one of a series arranged by the Ling Physical Education Association, in Liverpool, Leeds, London, Birmingham, and other parts of the country.

BRONWEN LLOYD-WILLIAMS.

THE NATIONAL FEDERATION OF YOUNG FARMERS' CLUBS

THE Annual General Meeting of the National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs was held at the Royal Empire Society on Friday, July 4, 1941. The Duke of Norfolk, President of the Federation, was in the chair.

Before the meeting, the presentation of the Young Farmers' Clubs X-ray Mobile Unit to the Red Cross and St. John took place in Craven Street. His Grace the Duke of Norfolk made the presentation on behalf of the Young Farmers' Clubs of England and Wales.

The Rt. Hon. R. S. Hudson, M.P. (Minister of Agriculture), congratulated the Federation on having coped so successfully with the problems caused by the war, despite the loss of so many of the agricultural experts who had been helping the movement, in order that they could devote the whole of their time to the increased Food Production Campaign. He believed that some sixty new Clubs had been formed since the war began.

"One of the finest contributions that this country has made to the cause of world brotherhood is the Boy Scout movement. It was one of the great ideas of our time. The Young Farmers' Clubs seem to be another idea with the same kind of possibilities. Just as there is all over the world a youthful brotherhood of enterprise and idealism and love of adventure, so there are young people in every country growing up on the land with a common understanding of the problems and privileges of country life. What a farmer says when he sees a wonderful crop ruined is pretty much the same in any language.

"It may seem absurd to talk about brotherhood on a day like this, but people who work on the land take a long view. Whatever happens there will always be land and there will always be youth. In fact, I think that the young farmers to-day have a wonderful opportunity. They have thousands and thousands of young people living in the country—for the first time—young people who are beginning to understand that there is such a thing as a standard of happiness as well as a standard of living. But they want help. They want to learn and understand—and there's no one in a better position to help than the Young Farmers' Clubs.

"Your organization was founded just after the last war. It was inspired by famous words of a great President of the United States—it stands for 'Government of the young, by the young, for the young', and I hope you will tell the young people of this country much more about your clubs and how they can join up and start learning with you. I particularly hope that you will let every one know about the little books you publish. I'd like to say a special word of congratulation to the people responsible for these. They are first-class—and very cheap. They only cost a few pence and they are model instruction books. I also think you ought to persuade every teacher to read the booklet that you have published especially for teachers. Between you and me it would be most helpful if you got out a specially simple one for Ministers of Agriculture. You have mastered the art of explanation so well.

"Big things are happening on the land to-day. The rising generation of farmers are helping to bring these about. Much of their success is due to the foundations laid by the Young Farmers' Clubs. A few days ago I was standing in the Welsh mountains on a place where a thousand acres of common land had been ploughed up, cultivated and planted with potatoes in five weeks by young people armed with monster tractors and blazing with enthusiasm. That kind of thing is happening all over the country.

"The land is our one possession that has survived every war since the dawn of our history. It is certain to come out of this war better equipped, better planned and much more appreciated than ever before. So, although our hands are very full just now with our national responsibilities, I would like to take this opportunity to assure you that we appreciate and admire the work that you have done and are doing. Think and plan now for the part that you may play in the future. We are counting on you to help us to make the most of the great opportunity that is coming to build a new and happier Britain on the sound foundation of a well-balanced agriculture run by men of skill, knowledge and patriotism."

Miss Dorothy Carson (Bakewell Young Farmers' Club, Derbyshire) moved a vote of thanks to the Minister, and Mr. Hywel Evans (Blaenporth Young Farmers' Clubs, Cardiganshire) seconded.

Board of Education Circulars and Memoranda.

Circular 1556 is entitled "Rationing of Cloth, Clothing, Footwear and Knitting Wool". The Board of Trade have agreed to make some exceptions to schools in regard to the Consumer Rationing (No. 2) Order, 1941. Certain clothing and footwear will be supplied without requiring the surrender of coupons to schools maintained by local education authorities. A limited supply of coupons are at the disposal of the Board of Education for schools not conducted by local education authorities and also for youth service and similar organizations. An appendix to the Circular contains suggestions for teachers of needlework and dressmaking.

Circular 1559, "School Medical, Dental and Nursing Services", refers to Ministry of Health Circular 2323 dealing with the release of medical staff for service with H.M. Forces. Local education authorities are again asked to consider in co-operation with the principal Regional Medical Officer of the area the release of members of Public Health staffs, and suggestions are made for effecting the maximum economy in man-power.

Administrative Memorandum No. 302 refers to the changes in the allowances of cheese and butter to school canteens.

Administrative Memorandum No. 303 gives more definite

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guidance on the provision for emergency cooking in school canteens.

Administrative Memorandum No. 304 is on the subject of attendance at public elementary schools. It states that the date on which the last return was taken, namely, December 6, 1940, proved to be one on which exceptionally bad weather conditions prevailed, and that the figures then collected did not present a fair picture of the extent to which local education authorities have been able to maintain regularity of attendance at school in present war conditions. The Board of Education have, therefore, arranged for another return to be made, showing attendance during July, 1941.

Administrative Memorandum No. 306 refers to changes in the allowances to teachers undertaking courses of industrial training.

Administrative Memorandum No. 307 announces the allocation of grants and loans by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust for the assistance of local voluntary organizations during the year 1941–42 for the provision of equipment for post-school activities.

Freedom from Examinations.—Speaking at a meeting of the Sheffield Teachers' Association, Mr. Ramsbotham referred to the great strides which had been made in striking off the fetters of examinations from both the Junior and Senior Schools of the city. The Junior Schools were feeling the benefit of the removal of the cramping effect of the Junior Scholarship Examination, and the senior schools were twice blest, for the children could now come to them with their freshness and enthusiasm unquenched, and were not faced at the end of their course with the depressing anxiety of the leaving examination.

The School Certificate Examination furnished them with quite enough problems as it was, and thank goodness they had not saddled their senior schools with similar perplexities. Examinations were, he supposed, necessary evils, for in too many instances they resulted in young people being taught to remember rather than to think. The senior schools had the great advantage of being free from examinations, and so had much greater liberty to develop on individual lines and to work out courses which would give various types of pupils fuller opportunity to follow their own bent. As Dr. Alexander had written, " The approach will be to find ways and means by which we can fit the school system to the needs of the children in it and for whom it was created, rather than to find the ways and means of making the children fit into the school system."

Juvenile Offences.—A Circular bearing this title, issued by the Home Office and the Board of Education, calls attention to the war-time increase in the numbers of juvenile offenders and stresses the need for prompt action in every area where the evidence of delinquency has given rise to anxiety. For the first twelve months of the war, as compared with the previous twelve months, there has been an increase of about 41 per cent in the number of children under 14 found guilty of indictable offences and an increase of about 22 per cent in the age group 14–17. One of the main causes of this, it is suggested, is the breaking up of home life for the younger children; many mothers are doing war work; evacuation and the closing of schools have also been contributory reasons. The circular emphasizes the importance of preventive measures, including more, and more varied, social and recreative facilities. The courts and the local education authority should consider how provision for wholesome and healthy leisure activities can be made more adequate. A piquant paragraph on the treatment of young offenders calls attention to the need for younger men and women to serve as justices on juvenile court panels. In 1938 only about 12 per cent were under 50, about 37 per cent were in the age group 60–69, and large numbers in the age-group 70–79 and over. The position has not improved and many panels are comprised almost entirely of elderly justices. The tendency of some courts to resort to birching is deprecated and the value of the probation system is stressed. (H.M. Stationery Office, 3d. net.)

National Wholemeal Bread.—The desirability of using national wholemeal bread and flour in all school feeding centres is emphasized in a memorandum issued by the Scottish Education Department. It is pointed out that not only are wholemeal bread and flour better for the health of the children but also their consumption aids the war effort, since a greater part of the grain is used for flour and less for offals than when white flour is milled. It is suggested that, while children are becoming accustomed to it, not less than half the supply should consist of national wholemeal bread, and as soon as possible the use of white bread should be discontinued. Authorities having difficulty in obtaining a sufficient supply of national wholemeal bread or flour are asked to report the matter to the Divisional Food Officer.

Cost of A.R.P. in Scottish Schools.—Expenditure on A.R.P. in schools, school feeding centres and other emergency services has resulted in an increase of £304,803 in the amount of the General Aid Grant payable to the Education (Scotland) Fund.

Evacuation—Work in Reception Areas.—The London County Council make another appeal for women prepared to volunteer for work of national importance and willing to do full-time work wherever needed. They are wanted for evacuation work in the reception area in the following capacities:

(1) *Helpers* to deal with problems of various kinds in connexion with the clothing of school children, their out-of-school activities and their billets, to help in communal feeding centres or in social centres for women, or to assist billeting authorities in other ways. These helpers may be paid up to 19s. a week in addition to receiving free board and lodging.

(2) *Helpers, cooks and domestic workers in hostels.*—Most of the hostels cater for children who for some reason are difficult to billet in private households. Others accommodate old people. Hostel work is exacting and helpers should be strong, active, and cheerful. They receive free board and lodging and are paid by the local authority responsible for the hostel.

(3) *Women and girls over* 16 *for country houses*, where 'special parties' of children under 5 are being cared for. These residential nurseries or nursery schools are under the direct management of the London County Council, which offer appropriate rates of pay with board and lodging in certain cases.

(4) *Trained or experienced social workers*, especially those who have had experience in London, and people qualified to superintend hostels for children, mothers and children, or old people. Salaries for these posts vary according to the scope of the work and the qualifications of the person appointed.

P.E.P.—A recent *Planning* broadsheet issued by P.E.P. deals with " Health in War-time ". Death-dealing techniques have advanced immensely since 1914. There has occurred a parallel, hardly less startling, improvement in the state of Britain's health, in our material equipment, scientific knowledge, and techniques of life preservation. The expectation of life has been increased; children are taller and heavier for their ages; remarkable advances in food consumption per head have occurred, though sub-optional nutrition is still widespread; maternity and child welfare services have been established; and there have been great advances in medical knowledge.

Reference is made to the increase in tuberculosis during the last war, to the great influenza epidemic when the influenza death rate rose from 213 in 1917 to 3,129 per

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million in 1918, and to the fact that for the greater part of the war munition workers at least were worked beyond optimum capacity, with consequences to their health which are reflected in war-time sickness and mortality statistics.

In the present war, as in the last, the two major health problems are how to ensure adequate nutrition and how to combat fatigue. The nutrition situation is still much better than in 1917–18. The problem of fatigue is probably more serious, because of aerial warfare. The average adult has probably lost one hour's sleep a night, his sleep in bombed areas is less satisfying than in peace-time, and hundreds of thousands miss most of their sleep on a number of nights each month, because of Home Guard, fire-watching, or other civil defence duties. The situation requires an all-round improvement and adaptation of our health services—a difficult task under present conditions. These problems will be discussed in several future issues of *Planning*.

A further broadsheet, concerned with " America and Britain ", summarizes the surprising and highly encouraging convergence of developments in the United States and the United Kingdom. The real and decisive co-operation now coming into being has many aspects. Examples are : the setting up of the Joint Canadian-American Defence Board ; the exchange of British bases in the Caribbean and the Atlantic for American destroyers ; the British credit of £10,000,000 and the United States loan of $100,000,000 to China ; the responsibility assumed by the United States Government for the defence of Greenland ; the patrolling of a large belt of the Atlantic by American ships and planes ; and the various steps taken since the proclamation of an Unlimited National Emergency.

The implications of the Lease-Lend Act are examined. They imply in the long run nothing less than the acceptance of United States patterns, adapted in many cases from Allied types or in the light of Allied experience, as the basis of the army and air force equipment of all the forces using American supplies. Thus, for example, when an aeroplane comes into service it will be equally usable by British and Americans.

Other points made are : in both countries an increasing proportion of the national economic resources is being devoted to war effort ; trade unionists now fill important government positions both in the United States and in Britain, and the dislike of American business men towards trade unions is being to some extent overcome ; it is to be desired that careful rationing according to a comprehensive system of priorities should obviate ' bottlenecks ', and the establishment of a common research organization might do much to this end, as well as checking the influence of vested interests ; in both countries equality of opportunity in education is held to be a vital element in democracy.

Most important of all is the twin rebirth of democracy which is now taking place under the challenge of Fascism and under the guidance of two great statesmen with a common objective.

Finally, we must briefly notice a highly interesting and important broadsheet entitled " The Future of Germany ". Here an attempt is made to analyse salient features in the current German situation and from these to suggest the more probable lines of future development. Both immediate and long-term policies are discussed. Among the points made are : Germans must once for all be deprived of the remotest possibility of again attacking the liberties and lands of their neighbours ; no violent revolutionary movement is to be looked for within Germany either before or even after a military defeat, though the chances are strongly in favour of growing spontaneous resistance movements in occupied territories ; it seems highly probable that victory must be followed by a temporary Allied assumption of governmental powers in Germany ; efforts must be made to resolve the dilemma that, while the German people can never again be trusted not to abuse their strength by trying to trample on weaker neighbours, any settlement which refuses such trust contains the seeds of another war. This summary does bare justice to a pamphlet which all should read.

Domestic Rabbit Clubs.—To encourage the production of rabbit meat in war-time, the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, working through the Domestic Poultry Keepers' Council in England and Wales and the Gardens and Allotments Committee in Scotland, is encouraging the formation of domestic rabbit clubs. A ration of bran will now be allowed to domestic producers, comprising persons with four does or fewer, who belong to such clubs. Applications to participate in the scheme from secretaries of existing rabbit clubs, or from persons desiring to form such clubs in England and Wales, should be made to the Ministry of Agriculture, 55 Whitehall, S.W. 1, and in Scotland to the Secretary, Scottish Gardens and Allotments Committee, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh. The Secretary of the National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs (Oaklings, Canons Close, Radlett, Herts.) will be glad to help in the foundation of such clubs.

Teachers for War-time Nurseries.—The Board of Education are arranging for one or more short courses of training of about a fortnight's duration during August and September to enable teachers wishing to undertake work in war-time nurseries for children of 2 to 5 years to gain some knowledge of nursery school methods, or to refresh their knowledge if they have already had some experience with young children. The courses will be open not only to teachers recognized by the Board but also to those who have served in private schools, preparatory schools or kindergartens. Recognized serving teachers should make application to their local education authority. Other teachers interested in these courses and desiring to attend them should apply to The Secretary, Board of Education, Branksome Dene Hotel, Bournemouth, giving their name, age, experience, and qualifications (if any) and present occupation. The precise dates for the first course and the name of the training college at which it will be given will be announced shortly. There will be no fee charged for attending the course and the charges for board and lodging will be as reasonable as possible. Assistance towards travelling expenses will be granted by the Board.

Courses on American History.—In our July number we announced the courses on American history which the Board of Education are arranging for teachers. The first course, which was opened by the American Ambassador, Mr. John G. Winant, was held during July in London ; and was attended by 275 teachers. A similar course is to be held at Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford, on August 11–15. This course will be opened by the President of the Board, and will be attended by 163 teachers. Speakers include Professor Arthur Newell, Mr. R. Birley, Sir Frederick Whyte, Major Dwight Whitney, and Dr. Frank Darvall.

National Froebel Foundation.—A week-end conference on " Reconstruction in Education, with special reference to the Needs of Children under twelve ", will be held under the auspices of the National Froebel Foundation at Knebworth House, Knebworth, Herts., from September 12 to 15. The opening address on " Patchwork or Reconstruction " will be given by Dr. H. G. Stead, and other speakers will be Professor Brian Stanley, Miss Gwen Chesters, Dr. W. P. Alexander, and Principal Nicholson, of University College, Hull.

N.E.F. Conference.—A Conference on " Towards Education in a Planned Democracy " has been organized by the New Education Fellowship, to take place at St. Hilda's College, Oxford, from August 21–26. The programme will be introduced by Prof. F. Clarke and will consist of three study courses : Dr. Karl Mannheim on " Selected Topics on the Study of Modern Society," Mr. J. A. Lauwerys on

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" Recent Advances in Educational Practice and Theory in the U.S.A.", and Dr. H. G. Stead on " The Modern Society and English Education ". Accommodation inquiries should be sent to Miss Clare Soper, 4 Highview, Gomshall, Guildford, Surrey.

Council for Education in World Citizenship.—The Council are holding a Summer School for Teachers at Lynton from August 9 to 16. The subject for discussion is " The Schools of To-day and the World of To-morrow ", and the programme arranged bears in mind especially the needs of teachers in the public elementary schools, and particularly of younger teachers. Particulars from the Secretary of the Council, 11 Maiden Lane, London, W.C. 2.

Fire Watching.—We are asked by the Ministry of Pensions to point out that the leaflet referred to on page 266 of our June issue entitled " Compensation for Civilians injured or Killed in Air Raids ", containing explanatory notes on the Personal Injuries (Civilians) Scheme, 1941, has been available to the public since May 2. It gives information with which every citizen would do well to make himself familiar. (H.M. Stationery Office, 3d. net.)

National Council for Maternity and Child Welfare.—At the annual general meeting the main subject of discussion was Family Allowances, the speakers being Dr. Leslie Housden, and Mrs. E. M. Hubback. The papers, which are well worth reading, are published in full in the July number of *Mother and Child*.

School Milk Stopped.—Mr. Eddie Williams, Chairman of the Children's Nutrition Council (Wales) writes to point out that milkmen have stopped delivering milk under the Milk-in-School Scheme. They find it does not pay. The margin of profit was based on the regional wholesale price, for April 1s. 11d. per gallon. But, owing to local supplies being insufficient, milkmen had to get their milk from large dairies at a distance. This costs 2s. 1½d. per gallon. Thus profit is reduced from 8d. to 5½d. per gallon, out of which many expenses (bottles, delivery, labour for sterilizing, &c.) have to be provided. Mr. Williams criticizes the Board of Education for not implementing the announcement that the 8d. was to be increased to 10d. " The milkmen must have a square deal or the children of the nation are going to suffer."

Bell Professorship of Education.—Mr. Andrew F. Skinner, M.A., B.Sc., Ph.D., has been appointed to succeed Professor W. W. McClelland in the associated posts of Bell Professor of Education in the University of St. Andrews and Director of Studies of the St. Andrews and Dundee Training Centre.

Animals' Welfare Week, 1941.—In spite of the war time difficulties, Animals' Welfare Week was observed this year for the twenty-second time and activities were initiated by a letter sent to educational authorities in the country with the following result: In reply to this letter 50 answered favourably, 46 allowing literature (leaflets, &c.) to be sent to the schools in their districts, and 4 announced the Week to their head teachers. Thus, 39,755 leaflets and 734 posters were sent to 4,174 schools or departments. Other schools also applied and the resultant totals are 60,272 leaflets and pamphlets and magazines, and 784 posters sent to 5,467 schools. The usual essay and posters competitions were held and the entries are now being judged. Speakers were sent to a number of schools and 16 mm. films were sent on loan. The National Council for Animals' Welfare is responsible for the arrangements of the Week, which usually takes place during the first week in May, and would be glad to furnish any further particulars or to send appropriate literature, lend 16 mm. silent films, or arrange for speakers at any time. Their present address is 32 Queen's Avenue, London, N. 10.

London County Council.—The Education Committee have considered the question of school holidays in elementary and secondary schools, both in the reception area and in London. As regards the reception area, they propose to continue the present policy of asking local directors of education to arrange holidays for London schools on the same basis as for local schools. As regards London, they think it undesirable to close schools for long periods in present conditions, but there is no doubt that both teachers and children in London are working under great strain. They are of opinion that the situation would best be met by the grant of shorter holidays at more frequent intervals, and therefore propose that elementary and secondary schools shall have a total annual holiday of 7 weeks and 4 days spread over the year as follows: Whitsun, 1 week and 1 day; Summer, 2 weeks and 1 day; Autumn half-term, 1 week and 1 day; Christmas, 1 week and 1 day; Spring half-term, 2 days; Easter, 1 week and 3 days.

The Committee has also considered the various problems of the provision of school meals for children in London during war-time in the light of recent circulars issued by the Board of Education. They recommend that the arrangements for the feeding of school children formerly undertaken by the school meals service be undertaken by the Londoners' Meals Service. It is also proposed to provide cheaper meals in secondary and technical schools.

Durham University Journal.—We have received the issues of this *Journal* for March and for June, each containing a supplement of University of Durham notes. The articles are academic, occasionally learned, in character, preference being given to local writers and subjects. F. G. Simpson and I. A. Richmond contribute to the March number an article on Hadrian's Wall in Cumberland, recording recent excavation work; and F. A. Paneth on " Thomas Wright of Durham and Immanuel Kant ". To the June issue, W. B. Edwards contributes an article on " Recent Developments in Architecture," with local illustrations.

Whitelands College, Putney.—Evacuation address for the duration of the war: Whitelands College, at The College of the Venerable Bede, Durham. Communications for the Principal should be sent to this address, but all general and financial correspondence should be addressed to The Secretary, Forest Lodge, 95 West Hill, Putney, London, S.W. 15.

National Baby Week Council.—To help to solve some of the difficulties caused by evacuation, the National Baby Welfare Council have issued a leaflet entitled *To Hosts and Guests*. The key words of the advice given are *Give and Take*, and both hosts and guests are told something of the problems, which each side has to face, and how these may be overcome. Supplies of the pamphlet may be obtained on application to the Council, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C. 1, at 2s. per hundred copies.

Schoolboys Reclaiming Derelict Farms.—Sixty boys from Aldenham School are helping London Transport to reclaim and plant two derelict farms at Brockley Hill and Little Bushey Lane, Elstree.

The Green Light.—The recent heavy increase in the number of children killed on the roads proves the need for more intensive and effective safety instruction. Schools will therefore welcome the second number of *The Green Light*, a coloured publication resembling a children's " comic " produced by the Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents. The coloured pictures on the front cover give glimpses of our forces on the sea, on land, and in the air—the " safety devices " of history. On the back cover the illustrations depict the " safety devices " of ordinary life. Inside are more illustrations, short stories, poems and puzzles, all of which will appeal to the young reader.

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O. U. P.

In order to economize in paper the full list of *Oxford Books for Secondary Schools* will not be reprinted this year. There remains a limited number of the 1940 catalogue which contained a Supplement covering the books published since July, 1939. Another Supplement has just been issued giving particulars of books published since the Summer Term of 1940, and of some forthcoming books. There are some important books and series mentioned including *The Groundwork of English Composition* by Mr. Glassey, *A Book of Short Plays* (English Association), *The New Clarendon Shakespeare*, *Fifteen Poets*, *The World To-day*, new *Oxford Pamphlets on World Affairs*, *The New Oxford Geographies*, Goodridge's *Practical English-French Dictionary*, as well as notices of several books for junior forms and for the school library. Owing to paper restrictions our usual dispatch to all Heads of Departments has had to be curtailed and in the first place we have sent only one copy to the schools addressed to the Headmaster. There are, however, a few extra copies and if any assistant master would like a copy we should be glad to hear from him.

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NEW BOOKS

EDUCATION FOR THE PEOPLE

By C. BIRCHENOUGH, Chief Inspector of Education, Kent Education Committee

DR. SPENCER'S task* is to outline the sort of education that he considers is fitting for the socialistic society which he envisages after the present war. He looks at it from the standpoint of what can reasonably be accomplished on a short-term policy in some five to ten years, and what should be the ultimate aim. In order to get the appropriate setting he sketches very broadly the historical background and calls attention to the salient good and bad features of the present position.

No one who knows Dr. Spencer will question his wide and varied knowledge of education, his shrewd judgment and his powers of incisively and, if need be, caustically, summing up a situation: they will sympathize with his hatred of shams and of obstructionism in all its forms: they will applaud his eager desire to give to every boy and girl, young person and adult, the best education suited to their individual need. Only the best that education can offer is good enough for the brave new world that is to be.

Great as these qualities are they need to be supplemented if a task of this magnitude is to be accomplished satisfactorily. It is not always understood in this country that, in writing on the larger aspects of education, practical experience and administrative capacity need to be supplemented by a philosophical equipment and an historical sensibility. Dr. Spencer glories in being above everything a plain Englishman who in education matters follows his own judgment. Such a thing as a philosophy of education he is content to leave to " the French or the Germans ". One principle satisfies every need. " It is this: every human being is entitled to as much of the great heritage of learning as he or she can absorb. He is also entitled to develop his own powers, spiritual, mental, moral, physical, aesthetic, to the full extent of their possibilities " (pp. 105–6).

Any one looking for just and oftentimes pungent criticism of a good deal that exists to-day will find it in this book. School buildings, much so-called reorganization, and the extent of reorganization in the country come in for well-deserved indictment. It is only fair, however, to ask how many professional educationists as recently as fifteen years ago really understood, or had the courage to admit, what reorganization must entail in terms of sites, buildings, imaginative planning, suitably trained teachers, educational insight and cost. For Dr. Spencer to imagine that goodwill and determination in themselves would have solved the problem is to reveal a strange ignorance of the facts. A great forward movement in education is as impossible without long and earnest preparation as is the successful conduct of a modern war. The educationist who fails to learn the true lessons of history or doubts the imperative necessity of theory may unwittingly do a good deal of harm.

Those who look for guidance on the future will find this book disappointing. One gets the impression that Dr. Spencer feels in his bones the need for some quickening and humanizing influence in education, but he is not sure what it is. He is accordingly left to accept too complacently a good deal that calls for reform, or he feels he must make the best of the mediocre, knowing it to be mediocre. He has nothing to contribute, for example, to the problem of the training of teachers; he is left with a divided mind on the subject of the school-leaving age; he fancies he knows a simple solution to the problem of the size of classes; he

* **Education for the People.** By Dr. F. H. SPENCER. (7s. 6d. net. Routledge.)

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feels at a loss when dealing with questions like religious education, and so on. Administration and administrators are his *bête noire*.

It is perhaps permissible to point out that the right philosophy of life will do more for education administrators than either long experience of, or hastily acquired practice in, teaching, and certainly more than snippets of ill-digested theory. Dr. Spencer is far too shrewd a man not to know this. Indeed, he is one of the few who have written on education who has the knowledge and the ability to assess the relative spheres of usefulness of inspectors and administrators and the vastly different training they need. It is the more unfortunate that in spreading his net too widely he has hardly succeeded in producing the kind of book that those who have admired and respected his work and ability naturally expect.

OXFORD PAMPHLETS ON WORLD AFFAIRS

By Professor F. A. CAVENAGH, King's College, London

THE Oxford University Press continues its national service in these additions to the series of pamphlets on World Affairs. It has been particularly well advised in extending popular knowledge of the U.S.A. and of the Americas generally. As a historical record one is glad to have the reprint of President Roosevelt's four speeches[1] (29 December 1940, 6 January, 20 January, and 15 March 1941). No doubt the time will come when his speeches, with Mr. Churchill's, will rank amongst the classics of British oratory; and in the meantime they may well be studied in schools.

Then there is the admirable set of pamphlets (C1 to C8) issued in Canada.[2] One can gain from them a clear idea of the relations between the U.S.A. and Canada, both now and in the past. The fact that several pamphlets are now out-of-date merely adds to their historical interest. Thus the very title of Stephen Leacock's tract marks the progress that events have forced: in October 1939 he could take the line that we in Canada would be quite thankful for any help in arms or loans that the U.S.A. cared to give; but if they did not care, well, it's all right, Mr. Roosevelt. Or again, Mr. Sandwell wrote in November of that year (No. C2), " no present or conceivable future enemy of Canada is in the least likely to desire to attack the United States ". Events too have dragged into the light aspects of our relations with America that have hitherto been tactfully kept quiet about—notably the Monroe Doctrine. Ever since that was laid down in 1823 it has had in itself no force apart from British sea power: it has been to our interest to allow the United States to develop, since that development has been internal. From the start the United States have been isolationist, for most of their inhabitants went there to escape from one European domination or another; they have not sought external aggrandisement or wished for anything but to be left alone. Canada however has developed on totally different lines: her prosperity depended on export, and her defence has always been bound up with Great Britain. Nor has that meant political subservience or sentimental attachment: Canada might as easily have joined the U.S.A. (though the idea of annexation has been dropped since 1875) as have become a self-governing member of the British Commonwealth. Further, as Mr. Spry explains (No. 47),[3] there was no certainty that the Dominion was bound to enter the war on our side. On the contrary, " if the war had come earlier, in 1937 or 1938, the conjunction of forces supporting a united Candian policy of intervention might well have been less favourable and the unity less complete ". People here are too apt to take Dominion help for granted. As things have turned out, fortunately, the war with its threat to Canada brought about such unity that Canada became the first of Britain's allies, declaring war on Germany only a week after the British Government. Since then, apart from the immense aid that Canada has given directly to the common cause, she has the responsible task of acting as the ' bridge between the old world and the new '; her 11 millions, so interconnected and yet so distinct, can interpret our ideals to the 120 millions in the United States, and indirectly perhaps to South America. About that great continent much useful information is given by Mr. Humphreys (No. 43).[4] At the moment we are necessarily most concerned with the attitude of any country to the war; how far are the countries of Latin America likely to follow the lead of the United States? Mr. Humphreys traces briefly the development of Pan-Americanism from 1889 onwards. Roughly one may say that, after a setback due to jealousy of United States power, the ' Latin ' States are now better disposed, owing partly to President Roosevelt's ' Good Neighbour ' policy, partly to the threats, from within as well as from without, to their independence.

In No. 46[5], Mr. Duncan Wilson critically examines Hitler's ' New Order '. Although most people in this country at least are prepared to take it for what it is, another piece of Hitler's bluff, it is just as well to have a careful investigation of its claims. These turn out to be just what one would expect—the exploitation and enslavement of Europe for the sake of the *Herrenvolk*, the race of Nazi supermen. Its effects have been vividly imagined in such works of fiction as *If Hitler Comes* and *Swastika Night*. Like so much of the Nazi propaganda, the New Order is a clever ruse; and it was well timed. After all, Europe longs for peace and security; and that is what Hitler offers. Yet the fact that Hitler has again changed his tune, and now figures as the saviour of civilization from Bolshevism, suggests that the New Order trick may not have worked as well as he expected. What is important is that we should have a New Order of our own to offer; apparently one tangible bait consists of stores of food to give to a starving Europe.

One people that would certainly fare badly in Hitler's brave new world is the Jewish. I am glad that Mr. Parkes has followed up his earlier pamphlet (31) with this admirable examination of the Jewish question (45).[6] As he well says, " the treatment of the Jews in any community is an excellent guide to the moral health of that community ". Actual persecution is a mark of the Fascist beast (*e.g.* B.U.F. riots in the East End); but short of violence antisemite sentiment is a danger signal. To those who do not share this sentiment it is incomprehensible: it seems as indecent as any other sort of bad manners. Yet it flourishes, and is probably on the increase. One comes across educated and otherwise reasonable men who will not read a book by a Jew, however high his reputation. The historical explanations given by Mr. Parkes, valid as they are, do not account for all types of antisemitism; there is room for a thorough psychological investigation (if one has not already been

[1] **America Faces the War.** No. 1: Mr. Roosevelt Speaks: Four Speeches by President Roosevelt. (6d. net. Oxford University Press.)

Oxford Pamphlets on World Affairs.

[2] No. C.1: All Right, Mr. Roosevelt (Canada and the United States). By STEPHEN LEACOCK. No. C.2: Canada and United States Neutrality. By B. K. SANDWELL. No. C.3: The Ukrainian Canadians and the War. By W. KIRKCONNELL. No. C.4: What the British Empire means to Western Civilization. By A. SIEGFRIED. Translated from the French by G. M. WRONG. No. C.5: Canada and the Second World War. By C. P. STACEY. No. C.6: War for Power and Power for Peace. By L. M. GELBER. No. C.7: North America and the War: a Canadian View. By R. G. TROTTER. No. C.8: Trends in Canadian Nationhood. By C. MARTIN. (6d. net each. Toronto: Oxford University Press.)

[3] No. 47: Canada. By G. SPRY. (3d. net. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)

[4] No. 43: Latin America. By R. A. HUMPHREYS. (3d. net. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)

[5] No. 46: Germany's ' New Order '. By D. WILSON. (3d. net. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)

[6] No. 45: The Jewish Question. By J. PARKES. (3d. net. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)

(*Continued on page 358*)

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made). Would that explain why Napoleon figured as the liberator of Jews, while Hitler, who seems to imitate him in so many ways, hates them with what is plainly a pathological hatred? Be that as it may, this pamphlet is most enlightening; and the most important lesson to be drawn from it is the danger of attributing to Jewish influence evils such as the decline in business or professional standards, and in the level of popular entertainment, when these evils are symptoms of the time, and the Jewish influence is only accidental. This kind of propaganda, as Mr. Parkes says, " is merely inviting disaster, by misleading people as to the real nature of the problem which confronts them. The use of antisemitism by Fascist propagandists comes almost entirely within this category ".

Mr. Shepherd discusses various feature of the aeroplane in war (No. 44)[7]; it must be very difficult to avoid both technical language and military secrets. What strikes a layman after reading this pamphlet is our complete dependence for the whole of our future on engineering skill: however brave and skilful the pilot, he must have greater speed, range, bomb-load, and ceiling than his enemy. It looks as though, so far, we have this superiority.

The two latest pamphlets are of extreme interest. Prof. Clark contributes a lucid account of Holland, its geography, modern history, and part in the war[8]; whilst Miss Barbara Ward writes a masterly analysis of Italian Foreign Policy.[9] In the course of this short essay she answers such questions as " Why did the Italians wait nine months before declaring war? Why did they enter the war against their old allies on the side of an hereditary enemy? Why, above all, now that they are in the war, has their record been one disastrous series of defeats? " The story is one of unprincipled and cynical chicanery, in which no country appears to advantage; but, if one reason must be given for Italy's becoming a member of the Axis, it is that she was driven into it by our insensate foreign policy. It is all as unpleasant and as fantastic as the account of Russian foreign policy which Miss Ward wrote in No. 34, and which will now require revision. How many of this series will have to be rewritten before the end?

[7] No. 44: The Military Aeroplane. By E. COLSTON SHEPHERD. (3d. net. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)

[8] No. 49: Holland and the War. By G. N. CLARK. (3d. net. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)

[9] No. 48: Italian Foreign Policy. By BARBARA WARD. (3d. net. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)

THE TEACHING OF ECONOMICS

By N. B. DEARLE

THESE books are interesting from the educational standpoint, for they range from treatment suited to elementary education to studies of technical or specialized character.

Economics is not an easy subject for the elementary school, yet a simple teaching of its principles is very desirable, not least for the average school-leaver who will get thereby a better idea of that business world which he (or she) is about to enter. For this purpose, Mr. Odell[1] provides a brief description of the boy's (or girl's) choice of work; of the organization of production, transport, and commerce; of how what is produced is shared between different incomes; and of how these incomes are spent or saved. His book is well fitted to achieve its object, being short, simple, and direct, with well-chosen illustrations.

The reissue of Miss Ley's *Men, Money and Markets*[2] is welcome for its interesting and suggestive outline—combining the principles of economics with their practical application. Thus it is informing both to the general reader and to students in secondary or continuation schools. Of special interest is the new chapter on the " State at War " which discusses the major problems of war-time economics —limited man-power and equipment, finance and revenue, and the need, in order to prevent inflation, to reduce civilian consumption in face of growing civilian incomes. This, like the rest of the book, is both brief and informing.

Mr. Crowther's excellent *Outline of Money*[3] is broadly based. It takes in all aspects of money, as purchasing power, credit, or savings; and it covers also the subjects of banking, international trade, foreign exchanges, and the trade cycle. General principles are combined with their application and with treatments of special problems of modern life, for example, breakdown of international monetary equilibrium and the means of restoring it. The book is clear and comprehensive, and is brought down to the outbreak of the present war. It is primarily intended for general readers, but has considerable educational value, among others to students and teachers in commercial institutes, and its wide knowledge makes it helpful to professional economists.

Mr. Cushman's *Training Procedure*[4] is more definitely technical. It deals with ' in-service training ', that is training given inside a business during working hours, especially to skilled workers and ' minor executives '. Stress is laid on the importance of ' instructor training '. The scheme is well worked out from preliminary planning, through organization, operation, and application, to the ' holding and maintenance stage ', to ensure permanent good results. The author regards his ' in-service training ' as co-operating with education in general, particularly in what lies outside the proper scope of the schools. Similarly, while stressing possible difficulties and disadvantages, he points out the help which extension classes and ' leisure time ' education can give in his own scheme.

Migration to and from Britain[5] raises important problems of population, unemployment, and productive efficiency, since, while we hope to provide for the unemployed, other countries desire the strong and the skilled whom we can least spare. Mr. Walshaw's short but excellent treatment, analysing our migration country by country and taking account of quality as well as quantity, deals chiefly with the population problem, though not ignoring the others. Here the change since 1930 to a net inward movement, with immigrants exceeding emigrants, is important in view of our falling birth rates. There is also an interesting discussion of ' assisted migration '. The book is interesting in itself and should be helpful to teachers and students of social economics.

[1] **The Business of Earning and Spending: an Informal Introduction to Elementary Economics for Pupils of School-Leaving Age.** By H. J. ODELL. (2s. 3d. University Tutorial Press.)

[2] **Men, Money, and Markets.** By M. D. R. LEYS. Reissue with New Chapter on " The State at War ". (6s. net. Longmans.)

[3] **An Outline of Money.** By G. CROWTHER. (10s. net. Nelson.)

[4] **Training Procedure: a Discussion of the Problems encountered in Planning, Organizing, Operating, and Maintaining Efficient Training Programs in Industrial, Business, and Public Service Organizations.** By F. CUSHMAN. (12s. net. New York: Wiley; London: Chapman & Hall.)

[5] **Migration to and from the British Isles: Problems and Policies.** By R. S. WALSHAW. (5s. net. Cape.)

THE PSYCHOLOGIST AND THE TEACHER

By T. RAYMONT

FROM the point of view proper to this journal, the labours of the psychologist are significant to the extent to which they throw light on educational problems. To no psychologist of this generation is education more deeply indebted than to Dr. Cyril Burt, whose new work *The Factors of the Mind* has recently been published.[1] After his earlier work on mental tests, there appeared in 1925 *The Young Delinquent*, a book which has become famous because of its wide appeal, combining as it does scientific thoroughness with a broad humanity. There followed his equally substantial volumes on *The Subnormal Mind* and

[1] **The Factors of the Mind: an Introduction to Factor-Analysis in Psychology.** By Prof. C. BURT. (21s. net. University of London Press.)

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The Backward Child, both of them, as is well known, of outstanding value, both from the pedagogic and from the purely psychological point of view. The subject of his new book is factor-analysis, which, as he genially remarks, has been regarded as " a peculiar and somewhat isolated branch of psychology—at best a field for specialists, at worst the dubious hobby of an esoteric school, but in any case beyond the ken of the ordinary scientific reader ". It will be inferred that, when Dr. Burt tries to help the ' general ' reader by having certain sections printed in small type, he really means the scientific reader who seeks an explanation of the sharp differences—one might almost say the clamorous quarrels—between the leading factorists. For such a reader, as well as for the research-worker desiring to apply factorial methods, the book is meant. As a controversialist Dr. Burt appears in the light of a healer of differences, but he performs this function, not by amiably evading the point of an opposed doctrine, but by stressing an aspect which he believes it to have missed. He holds throughout that the primary object of factorial methods is neither causal interpretation, nor statistical prediction, but exact and systematic description. In this connexion he has a word in season for the educational or vocational psychologist who offers confident predictions based upon some such factor as *g* or general intelligence. His book should be a godsend to younger workers in the same field. As for the general reader, he who runs may not read.

Basing himself to a considerable extent upon Dr. Burt's earlier books, but speaking none the less in his own right as an acknowledged authority on child psychology, Dr. C. W. Valentine has published a little book[2] addressed directly to students of the psychology of children, and especially of dificult children, and to parents and teachers trying to get some light from psychology upon their problems. After giving a much-needed warning against the charlatanism which poses as psychology, he proceeds to suggest answers to certain pointed questions. Are there, as some writers seem to think, no problem children, but only problem parents ? Is it true that the future development of a child is fixed in the first few years of his life ? Is repressive discipline always wrong ? Is corporal punishment necessarily degrading ? And so on. The reviewer, who lives in a reception area, and has made acquaintance with difficult children and with almost incredible problems of discipline, believes that the author was well advised when he decided not to delay publication until the end of the war. The book is needed now, and it gains greatly from the fact that the author has learnt his business not only in the study and the laboratory, but also in the home.

An unusual kind of book remains to be noticed, bearing on the subject of the supernormal mind, and written by Dr. Rosamund Harding.[3] Notwithstanding its title, *An Anatomy of Inspiration*, it is not a theological treatise. The author's aim is to assist investigation into the psychology of the creative mind, and her method is that of the historical approach. The inspiration of which she writes is " the flash of intuition " which suddenly comes to the poet, the novelist, the musician, the artist, or the man of science, —sometimes with far-reaching results. In this slender volume she has collected and classified a large amount of material drawn from letters, biographies, and eye-witness accounts, but she puts forward this material only as the result of a preliminary effort. The reader who is also a teacher will note her remark that, although inspiration in its higher degree is manifested only in the few, yet it can and does happen to quite ordinary folk. He must be an unlucky or an unobservant person who is unable to corroborate this statement. Dr. Harding has produced a very interesting book, well deserving the commendatory note written by Prof. Bartlett.

[2] **The Difficult Child and the Problem of Discipline.** By Prof. C. W. VALENTINE. (4s. net. Methuen.)

[3] **An Anatomy of Inspiration.** By Dr. ROSAMUND E. M. HARDING. (4s. 6d. Cambridge : Heffer.)

(*Continued on page* 360)

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Economics

"The Forward March"

By Sir RICHARD ACLAND, M.P. (Cloth, 3s. 6d. Paper, 2s. 6d. Allen & Unwin.)

In spite of a certain *naïvette* this little book has a sincere eloquence of its own. The tones of an awakened and troubled conscience are unmistakable, and the book would have been less persuasive had it been written with more literary art and with wider grasp of the terminology of social philosophy. We can feel as we read like one listening to an earnest and trusted friend talking from the other side of the fireplace.

The main thesis can be stated in a brief quotation (p. 36):

> "Our chance of making the next step forward in human progress rests upon our ability to understand and accept not one proposition but two. The first, which we learn from the past, is that there can be no higher value than the well-being of the individual. The second, which we are beginning to learn from the present, is that it is not the nature of the individual to desire to seek his own particular well-being in isolation."

Elaborating this thesis the author rejects a narrowly 'economic' Socialism, concerned mainly with (ultimately selfish) personal enrichment, and accepts common ownership only as a necessary pre-condition of the sort of society he desires. This he calls the "Service Community" as the least unsatisfactory of the names available.

There can be no doubt either of the character of the society Sir Richard is seeking or of the earnest passion by which the search is inspired. But we do trust that he will carry his thinking a good deal farther yet before making quite sure that he has found what he is seeking. The images and illustrations that he uses to convey his idea of it leave one uneasy. What is one to make of this passage for example:

> "But quite frankly there is nothing very thrilling about collecting the municipal refuse, delivering the milk, sorting the letters, stoking the boilers and . . . driving a railway engine. These things just cannot be *life*. It is these other things which I have mentioned —dance halls, carnivals, sports, books, holidays, friends, love, spare time, these things are life. Is it really impossible for us to take our minds off our own personal position in the realm of economics and give ourselves over to the business of life?"

The doubts that arise in contemplating this queer mixture that, according to Sir Richard, constitutes 'life', are deepened when he tells us that the free community life of Oxford undergraduates—taken apart from their studies—comes near to being the kind of society he has in mind. Does he not see that the quality which gives that Oxford life its peculiar charm and its illusion of freedom is precisely its *irresponsibility*? Just the quality which would be ruinous to any permanence or stability in the society of which the author dreams! Reformers who have known only a sheltered childhood and youth, have enjoyed a privileged and prolonged education, and have missed the early discipline of earning a living, are in danger of failing to realize that no solution of our troubles which evades the problem of integrating work with life can claim to be a genuine solution at all. Sir Richard excludes from 'life' whole ranges of work of a kind that must be done and must occupy much of the time and energy of great numbers of men and women. If work of such kinds is to be excluded from 'life' where does it then belong? The only possible answer seems to be 'To slavery'. For what is slavery but work dissociated from genuine human satisfactions?

We trust that Sir Richard will continue on the forward march that he has so well begun, and will not flinch before the forbidding monsters that he has still to meet in the path. The beloved community for which he longs may yet reward his pilgrimage.

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These excellent little books contain carefully selected true stories of adventure and daring ranging from Pytheas to Scott. They may be used most profitably in the lower forms of secondary schools and in junior and senior departments of primary schools.

Philips' Comparative Smaller School Map of the Mediterterean Lands: Physical and Political

(8s. 6d. Philip.)

This is an exceptionally useful map, for it is large enough for class work. Relief is shown clearly in colours which do not mask the names. Although the new temporary frontiers of Rumania are not marked, this map affords an excellent means of illustrating the geographical background of political and military history of both Classical and Modern Times.

Philip's Loose-Leaf Revision Notes in Geography

By L. B. CUNDALL and H. V. JANAU. General Set: Major Regions and the Continents. (1s. 8d. Special Binder File for Loose-Leaf Notes, 9d. extra. Philip).

The set as a whole is very comprehensive, and is fairly liberally provided with maps. It is well designed to accomplish the purpose advertised in the title, of revising the outstanding facts of modern geography, physical, human and economic: the political side is—designedly, perhaps—but slightly in evidence. There are eight sections: (1) the Major Climatic Regions of the World, (2) the Major Physical Regions of the World, and (3) to (8) six Continental Regions, each section being reviewed by a somewhat searching set of questions that *require* for their consideration the use of good text-books and references. If really up-to-date text- and reference-books are used, then these Revision Notes supply an excellent *coup d'oeil* of the field of geography, and they should be included in all school and college libraries.

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Music

On Learning Music and Other Essays

By H. C. COLLES. (1s. 6d. net. Oxford University Press.)

Do teachers of music—especially those termed ' private ' —ever think or read very much about the implications of their job ? If they do, is not such reading generally confined exclusively to that particular branch of music at which they earn their living ? At any rate, here is a book—a collection of essays in fact—which should act as a spur to much wider reading and thinking. It is short, ridiculously cheap, clearly set out, and written by one who has enjoyed a distinguished career as lecturer, examiner, and critic. There is much more stimulus to thought in these sixty-seven pages than one usually finds in volumes three or four times the size. The first essay voices a judicious protest against the injudicious use of examinations in music, the gist of which can be clearly seen from a single paragraph taken out of it. " Now examinations I firmly believe are useful ; if I did not believe that, I should not consent to examine. But they are only useful as means to an end : they may become worse than useless by focusing attention in the wrong direction." Does not this, by the way, apply with equal force to the way in which pupils are ' prepared for ' the School Certificate examination in many schools ? Needless to say the author goes on to give some valuable suggestions in the way of using more enlightened methods.

In the second essay Dr. Colles has some interesting facts to tell us about the foundation and history of the Royal Schools of Music, which he instances as a notable example of democratic government—as providing the means of education in musicianship by musicians for musicians.

The third essay on " Letters " (after one's name, of course) might well be perpended not only by those who already possess them, but also by Education Committees and others, who are from time to time called upon to appoint teachers of music in their schools. " Exhibitionism " is the subject of the next essay, which may be summed up in the concluding words of its *coda*. " Beware exhibitionism. The great artist must have a measure of it somewhere in his make-up, but exhibitionism without great artistry leads to charlatanry and sham—better the defect than the excess." The concluding essays on " Fans ", " Bans ", and " Plans " are too closely packed with words of ripe wisdom for any quotation to be taken from them, but the last essay contains a sort of text on which all the rest are based—" Remember : Governments cannot make art, only artists can do that, and the first need for more and better art is more and better artists ".

Hymn for Airmen

Words by E. H. BLAKENEY. Music by H. G. LEY. (2d. S.P.C.K.)

Imaginative words and dignified music are happily wedded in this noble hymn.

Samuel Pepys Music Book : Sixteen Pieces known to Samuel Pepys, arranged for Recorders or Voice

By Dr. P. M. YOUNG. (2s. 6d. Leeds : Arnold.)

Invaluable for either history or music teaching. Why do not teachers of history more often call in the aid of music to throw light upon some of the characteristic features of other nations ?

Rhythmics and Simple Dances : for Infant and Junior Children

By MARGARET LAING. (4s. 6d. Leeds : Arnold.)

These are more concerned with physical training than with music, *e.g.* " The pianist must watch the class and be familiar with the type of movements required ", but are none the less very effective when performed with really competent pianoforte playing.

Music Makers : Four Short Plays of Great Musicians

By L. DU GARDE PEACH. (2s. Nelson.)

Here are Handel, Beethoven, Schubert, and Grieg, but we can never have too many of these admirable biographical sketches.

Standard Stories from the Operas

Vol. 2. By GLADYS DAVIDSON. (10s. 6d. net. Werner Laurie.)

The first volume of this work contained the stories of famous operas by Bach, Balfe, Beethoven, Gounod, Mascagni, Strauss, Verdi, Wagner, and others. The present volume contains the stories of more recent operas, with some of those of older works not included in the first volume —nearly fifty altogether. The two volumes, therefore, provide a representative collection of stories from the operas. The stories are admirably told and will delight both lovers of the opera and all who like good stories well told. There are a number of illustrations and short biographies of the composers.

Air for Viola and Piano

By ROBIN MITFORD. (1s. 6d. Oxford University Press.)

Original compositions for the viola are always worth looking at, if only for the reason that they are very scarce. This is a competent little work, not difficult to play, but very satisfying when played well. The charm of the flowing melody is greatly enhanced by the very appropriate pianoforte accompaniment, which is also on the easy side.

The Land of Biscay

Words by A. E. HOUSMAN, music by CORBETT SUMSION. (6d. Oxford University Press.)

This is a unison song for boys. Throughout its ten pages interest is sustained by changes of key, time, *tempo*, rhythm, and mood. Under a conductor with some imagination a good choir would revel in it.

Education on trial

"THE other day a parent called at a school to make a complaint. She complained that her son's head was full of ideas. Most headmasters . . . would regard it as a matter of pride and satisfaction: but . . ."

Thus Mr. G. C. Diamond, Headmaster of the Cardiff High School for Boys, began a recent controversial broadcast talk. It was a talk that should have been listened to by every parent, by every employer, and, above all, by every teacher, for Mr. Diamond discussed the limitations of the educational system, and tried to remedy loose thinking about it.

How many teachers were able to hear that talk? Those who did will want to read it; those who didn't could make good this loss for it was printed in *The Listener* dated 3rd July. All the most interesting broadcast talks are printed in *The Listener*, which is published every Thursday, price 3d. Your newsagent will get it for you.

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Psychology

How to Increase Reading Ability: a Guide to Diagnostic and Remedial Methods

By Dr. A. J. HARRIS. (15s. net. Longmans.)

This is a very useful book covering practically every aspect of the psychology and teaching of reading. It takes note of recent research and is extremely well documented. The care that has been bestowed upon its production is shown by the fact that it was used in an experimental mimeographed edition with three successive groups of students. The author reveals the magnitude of the reading problem in American schools when he cites the fact that in New York City alone some 15,000 pupils are treated each year as cases of reading disability. The treatment of the early topics in the book is admirable. It is difficult to know why, after this, the author abruptly turns to the problem of " how to diagnose silent reading ". Surely the initial problem is that of word recognition—Why does the child fail to learn to discriminate word patterns ? How can we diagnose the condition accurately, and what remedial measures can we plan ? Dr. Harris thinks that " observing eye movements should be a routine part of the examination of reading disability cases ". The value of a study of eye movements, however, is very limited, and is largely of academic interest and without sufficient real practical application to the problem of diagnosis and treatment. In helping class teachers to treat backward readers, the aim should be to select diagnostic and remedial methods that will produce maximum results in the shortest time. Long lists of check questions or involved diagnosis should be avoided. Dr. Harris's chapter on the causes of reading disability is excellent—it is comprehensive, accurate, and sufficiently critical of unsubstantiated research findings. The sections on remedial reading are especially good, while later applications to handicapped children are sound, if somewhat general in nature. It is a pity that this really excellent book could not have been compressed a little and published at a price within the reach of all. It certainly deserves a wide reading public.

The Nature of Dreams

By A. J. J. RATCLIFF. (Discussion Books.) (2s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

Here is a small book which sets out, first, to give a history of dreams from primitive times and in the ancient worlds of Egypt, Greece, and Rome, and in the Middle Ages; and, secondly, to present the teaching of Freud as fully as may be done in some thirty pages, followed by that of Adler, Jung, and Pierce. In the space available it would be difficult to find, for the general reader, a more useful introduction to the subject. The book, it should be remembered, is designed as a Discussion Book and written with the end in view of proving helpful to adults studying in whatever group these may be found. The author may be congratulated on having attained his end. An excellent annotated list of books is included for further reading.

Application of the Analysis of Variance and Covariance Method to Educational Problems

By Dr. R. W. B. JACKSON. ($1.00. Department of Educational Research, University of Toronto.)

This bulletin is a welcome contribution to educational research literature and will undoubtedly prove a valuable assistance to students applying this rather difficult mathematical technique. Dr. Jackson gives ample illustration of the method, and demonstrates its power and scope by investigating a variety of problems. He applies the analysis to actual experimental results and so studies the reliability of tests and the errors of marking; he examines the validity of assuming linear regression in the determination of correlation, and considers the effects of combining the results of samples upon the values of reliability and correlation coefficients. This bulletin is heartily recommended to students who contemplate using the analysis of variance.

Science

An Introduction to the Theory of Newtonian Attraction

By A. S. RAMSEY. (10s. 6d. net. Cambridge University Press.)

In writing this volume Mr. Ramsey has done a very useful work and has completed his series of text-books on Mechanics. The book is suitable for mathematical students reading for a degree, and, although many of them now approach the subject of potential from the study of electricity and magnetism, there are certainly some advantages in starting with the theory of the attraction of gravitating solids. The earlier chapters should be of particular value for students preparing for a pass degree because the author begins with fairly elementary methods in mathematics, and gives a clear account of surface and volume integrals and of vector notation. The later chapters are on Green's theory, Harmonic Functions and the Attraction of Ellipsoids. There are many interesting biographical notes and examples.

1. Growing Pains: the Story of the First Year of a School Young Farmer's Club

By C. H. CATT. (6d. N.F.Y.F.C.)

2. Young Farmers' Club Booklets

No. 5 : Poultry Keeping. By L. C. TURNILL. No. 6 : Grassland. By J. O. THOMAS. No. 7 : Farm Implements. By H. J. HINE.
(6d. each. National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs.)

3. How to Start Rabbit-Keeping

(Practical Work Books.) (9d. Nelson.)

To all who are seeking to give to their teaching a practical agricultural bias, these little books can be warmly recommended.

Growing Pains describes the launching of a School Young Farmers' Club in a senior school. Its success should lead to the introduction of similar clubs into many other schools.

Poultry Keeping would be invaluable to the beginner and very useful to the expert poultry keeper.

Grassland and *Farm Implements* are of particular interest to teachers in rural areas.

How to Start Rabbit-Keeping contains many good hints about the care of rabbits, together with excellent reasons for breeding them in war-time.

An Introduction to Chemical Science

By Prof. W. H. HATCHER. (18s. net. New York : Wiley ; London : Chapman & Hall.)

The curious mixture of the colloquial and academic style in which this text-book is written falls oddly on English ears. Chemistry " steps out " on p. 9 ; later the gas-laws are " dodged " and the electron " cornered ". At the same time we learn that " the summation of combining regularity is expressible in the term valence ", and that for crystals " a purely morphological classification was built up, based on the number of elements of symmetry they possessed ".

Professor Hatcher states that the material here incorporated has been accumulated in teaching chemistry to non-scientists with interests mainly historical, literary, philosophic or economic. Nevertheless, it does not seem to the reviewer that his book breaks any new ground in methods of presentation. It is a fairly straightforward, semi-popular outline of the development and scope of chemistry, but the technical and economic results of this development are presented in a purely factual and somewhat cursory manner, and their social implications little discussed. In fact it would seem that Professor Hatcher regards such discussion as little business of the man of science. His concluding sentence is almost a shrug of the shoulders : " If one is fearful what this (*i.e.* the chemical future) portends, it is too late to call a halt : science is on the march and the forces of economics and sociology must keep pace with her."

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SCHOLARSHIPS MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES, FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

WESTFIELD COLLEGE
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Rt. Hon. Viscount CALDECOTE, C.B.E.

Principal:
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For further particulars apply to:

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ALDENHAM SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys under 14 on May 1, on the results of an examination toward the end of May:

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(*b*) Three JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS, of £60 to £40 a year.
(*c*) Two or more EXHIBITIONS of about £30 a year.

INTERNAL SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys already in the School:

(*a*) Two SENIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 a year, open to boys not less than 15 and not more than 17 on May 1.
(*b*) Two JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 to £30 a year, open to all boys in the School.

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The School Scholarships are tenable for the duration of the holder's school career.

The School Fees are £115 a year, with a Consolidated Fee of £5 a term to cover all necessary extras.

Further particulars may be had from the HEADMASTER, ALDENHAM SCHOOL, ELSTREE, HERTS.

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ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination will be held in December, 1941, for two Entrance Scholarships of the value of £60, and Exhibitions of less amount.

Candidates must be under the age of 14 on December 1 immediately before the examination. The age of candidates will be taken into consideration in the examination.

Entries should be received by November 17. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

BEAUMONT COLLEGE

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS are awarded in March and June. Candidates must have taken previously the March or June Common Entrance Examination. A further Examination will be held at the College on March 28 and June 27. For further particulars apply the RECTOR, Beaumont College, Old Windsor Berks.

BRIGHTON COLLEGE

AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

A number of Gill Memorial Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered each June to sons of Officers or Ex-Officers in H.M. Army. The highest of these awards will amount to half the total fees.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in June, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER, Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY
Carlyon Bay, South Cornwall

THREE Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

TWELVE to Fourteen King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

ONE Milner Memorial Scholarship value £100 per annum for five years, will be offered in June. The Milner Scholarship is open to sons of Colonial Civil Servants and others.

TWO Music Scholarships, value £50 per annum.

For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

(*a*) Six SCHOLARSHIPS (at least), Classical and Modern, varying from £100 to £50 per annum, according to merit and needs.

(*b*) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

THE LEYS SCHOOL, CAMBRIDGE

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THREE or four Open Foundation Scholarships of £100 a year, and six other Scholarships and Exhibitions of between £25 and £75 a year will be awarded in June, 1942, if suitable candidates of sufficient merit present themselves. Candidates must be under 14 on January 1, 1942. A large choice of subjects in the Final Examination is available, including Science, German, and Music. Scholarships and Exhibitions may in certain cases be increased by such an amount as the circumstances of the Scholar may require. Full particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER.

The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS M.A. (Cantab.).

MALVERN COLLEGE

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held early in March, 1942. Up to five Scholarships of £100 and three or more of £50. A number of Exhibitions and Bursarships also will be offered to boys of all-round ability.

Candidates may take the Examination at their Preparatory Schools or at Malvern.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEADMASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in September.

OUNDLE SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June.

For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

SEDBERGH SCHOOL

THE Examination for Ten Entrance Scholarships and Exhibitions, of the annual value of £120 to £40, will be held in May or June. Candidates must be under 14 years of age on January 1.

For further information apply to the HEADMASTER, Sedbergh School, Yorkshire.

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Prospectus and particulars from the Registrar.

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Registered Teachers, and others who have passed an examination satisfactory to the Council, are eligible for membership of the College. Particulars may be obtained from the Secretary.

DIPLOMA EXAMINATIONS

The Examinations of Teachers for the Diplomas of A.C.P. and L.C.P. are held during the Winter Vacations. The Regulations may be obtained from the Secretary.

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SCHOLARSHIPS—*continued*

WORKSOP COLLEGE, NOTTS.

AN Examination is held in May or June. Generally two Scholarships are offered of £60 each, two of £40, and two of £30. Candidates must be under 14 years of age. Full particulars and entry forms can be obtained from the HEADMASTER, Worksop College, Notts.

WREKIN COLLEGE, WELLINGTON, SHROPSHIRE

SCHOLARSHIPS AND EXHIBITIONS

AN Examination is held annually, usually in June, when six Entrance Scholarships are offered for competition, value from 40 to 100 guineas, also six Exhibitions, value 30 guineas. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, WALTER M. GORDON, M.A., Wrekin College.

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(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

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It is proposed to resume the Course for the University of London Academic Postgraduate Diploma in Dietetics in October, 1941. For particulars apply to the Secretary, at the above address.

CHANGE OF ADDRESS

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SEPTEMBER 1941

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

THE World War has brought the United States and Britain into closer relationship. On both sides of the Atlantic there is a sincere wish to know more of each other's ways of life. There is a vast literature on American history, ideas, and institutions which is almost unknown in this country. We want more knowledge of and easier access to it. We want, too, more books on these subjects to be produced on this side of the water. There ought to be an American library of information in London where the public documents of the United States would be easily available. Many agencies are now concerning themselves in these matters—the Board of Education, the British Council, Chatham House, the American Outpost in Britain, the English-Speaking Union, the National Book Council and a number of publishing firms. We hope to publish in November a special American number of *The Journal of Education* which will include articles from distinguished contributors on books on American history, as well as on novels, biographies, &c., which throw light upon the American cultural background. We should like to see in every library of a post-primary school in this country a section devoted to American history and American literature. We have no doubt that the Library Associations of both countries will be glad to cooperate with other agencies in making such a development possible.

America and Britain.

IT is probably true to say that what most English people of this generation ever learnt of American history amounted to very little. Of course there were the War of Independence, the unfortunate war of 1812, and the Civil War, all of which were noted incidentally in courses of English history. The emergence of the United States as a world power, and especially her part in the war of 1914–18, altered the situation but did not alter the neglect of American history in our schools and colleges. Our present relations with America make it high time that our stiff conservatism in this matter, intensified as it is by our examination system, should be brought to an end. The position taken up in a recent leading article in *The Times* at once attracted attention, and elicited a warm response from Professor Newell, President of the American Outpost in Britain, and from the organ of the English-Speaking Union. The first necessity is the enlightenment of teachers on the subject, and we are glad to know that the Board of Education have arranged short courses on the United States, their history and their current problems, for teachers in all types of schools. When in 1938 Professor Laski wrote an introduction to Professor H. U. Faulkner's excellent *Short History of the American People* he referred to " the long belief of British publishers that the general reader in Great Britain cannot be persuaded to an interest in American history ". Yet it is certain that no understanding of President Roosevelt's problems is possible without some knowledge of America's history and traditions. We now begin to see that in order to spread such knowledge we must begin in the schools.

Studying America.

WE should remember, however, that America does not mean only the United States. South of the United States there are the twenty republics of Latin America, which are going to play an increasing part in world affairs, and in the future relations of Great Britain and the United States. We can no more afford ignorance of Latin America than we can of the United States. The time has gone by when modern history can be profitably studied with the history of the Americas left out, and it is to be hoped that steps will be taken to improve our knowledge of, and make information more accessible about, the Americas of the South as well as the America of the North. We understand that Chatham House is shortly to issue a bibliography on this subject. That at least will serve as a beginning. Meanwhile our readers, we are sure, will look forward with interest to our American number, of which particulars will be found on page 405.

The Americas of the South.

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THERE can be little doubt that a fundamental debate concerning the right point of departure for the planning of developments in English education is both salutary and essential. Conditions now, so different from what they were, call for something more than a spasmodic 'hunch' or two. So it is well that we should concern ourselves with some explicit thinking about points of departure as well as about distant objectives. In so doing we shall be wise to examine a little more critically than we are wont to do the actual content of the terms we allow ourselves to use. For they may have associations with past usage and former situations which may hamper freedom of thought without our realizing it. Some have associations of struggle and alarm, others of comfort and peace of mind. For instance, even the conservatives among us may come to accept the term "revolution" quite calmly when they become aware of the reality of the thing itself among us, and find that it is not necessarily a matter of blood and tears. Yet, used too freely in the present temper of England it may act as an obstacle to the attainment of quite desirable ends. On the other hand we agree that the term "evolution" has its dangers too if it is used to cover lack of adventurousness, mental indolence, and failure to realize that historic changes do not "happen of themselves", but only as a result of the willed actions of men. Might it not be a salutary exercise to train ourselves a little in thinking of our concrete problems without the use of either term?

Revolution or Evolution?

A DISCUSSION which took place at a recent conference on the subject of "Cultural Aspects of Vocational Education" raised in another form that question of the cultural function and significance of the ordinary working citizen upon which we commented in the August issue. It was contended by some that the rather sharp falling apart in our modern society of the vocations by which the life of the community is sustained and that which generally passes for culture is itself a sign of deep-seated disharmony. Others argued that the mere facts that culture is now so much talked about and that we are apt to be so self-conscious about it point in the same direction. It is certainly true that the periods of history—never of very lengthy duration—when the arts and crafts of men reached unusually high levels of excellence and expressiveness were precisely those when nobody talked about culture; when society revealed a high degree of unity, and when all that was richest and most significant in social feeling flowed easily and naturally into the products of the citizen-craftsmen. When, on the other hand, culture becomes a hothouse plant, cultivated in schools and academic conservatories under exotic names, then something has clearly gone wrong with the deeper sources of social vitality. One would suppose that a genuine culture would always be, potentially at least, a common social possession, shared in by all and contributed to by all, though needing always its finer critics to guard it against vulgarity and sham.

Culture—

THE matter affects contemporary education very directly in determining what relation the cultural shall bear to the vocational in any complete course of modern training. Perhaps that is the wrong way to state the question. We may be confusing our problem and blinding ourselves to the roots of the trouble by this sharp division between the vocational and the cultural. Is not the assumption too readily made that 'culture' is the stuff you work at in secondary schools and W.E.A. classes, and 'vocation' the stuff you work at in technical schools and the technological departments of universities? To overcome the distinction, and to integrate culture and vocation effectively in one and the same richly suggestive training, may not be completely possible until our notions of culture have been brought up to date in our social life generally. At present there is a certain snobbishness both ways, each side tending to despise precisely that which would cure its characteristic one-sidedness. Would not most teachers be all the better if their training and experience included some productive activity or craft widely differing in its nature from that of teaching? Perhaps, too, we may come to ask, with a more acute sense of the full meaning of the question, why a much-needed form of secondary school should be relegated in the Spens Report to a separate category as a "Technical High School". Such questions are being more and more insistently asked, but more clearing of our minds may be necessary before satisfactory answers are found.

—And Work.

IMPORTANT questions of post-war reconstruction were discussed at the meetings of the British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education at Birmingham in July. Principal Kitchen, of the Technical College, Rugby, pointed out that after leaving school young people seemed to mature very quickly indeed. A boy or girl who had been working two years, say from 14 to 16, was very much more mature than the secondary school boy or girl of 16. There was the key to the principles of the curriculum that must be applied to part-time education. It must be based on the new interest which became the major interest at that time, namely, employment. A high proportion of teachers must have experience of industry, by direct contact with it not only by contact through books. Mr. Locke, of Messrs. Rowntree & Co., contended that the youth problem arose very largely out of the workshop or the working conditions under which the young people of to-day spend their working lives. Proposed improvements in education would not have the results which were hoped for unless the working conditions were also improved. That was the root problem. It was the problem of giving young people in industry a significance and a status that used to be accorded to the one-time craft apprentices. Parallel with training in the workshop must go some form of day-continuation education. In our August number we stressed the point that the training of the adolescent is the concern of parent, teacher, and employer. The old

Commercial and Industrial Education.

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slogan, " Education for life and not for livelihood " is a dangerous half-truth, for ' livelihood ' is a vital part of ' life '. The terms ' liberal education ' and ' vocational education ' should never be used as though they were opposed to each other. These two aspects should be combined in the education of the adolescent, both in his last years at school and in the education which he receives when he has left school.

Christian Education.

A STATEMENT has been issued by the Christian Education Movement with the approval of the Archbishops and the Acting Moderator of the Free Church Federal Council. It says that the events of this last year have deeply stirred the conscience of the nation. " The scandal of evacuation was a salutary shock." It raised in many minds the question whether a nation which tolerated such conditions of life for many of its children could rightly claim to be fighting the battle for Christian civilization. On all hands there is talk of a New Order. Is this New Order to be Christian ? To put it bluntly, do we or do we not care whether successive generations of children are taught to understand and accept the truth of God made known in Christ, and the practical implications which follow from that belief ? We are all involved and that means that we must all cooperate. Concerted action, however, on the part of the churches alone is not enough. There must be co-operation between the churches and the teachers and administrators. We have now to make a choice between two conflicting and contradictory estimates. The one regards man as a creature of this world, finding the satisfaction of his nature in obedience to state-loyalties, and the enjoyment of state-rewards. The other regards him as a child of God with spiritual endowments which demand both training and freedom of expression. That choice radically determines our whole conception of education. For the Christian there is no choice. Education is from top to bottom religious, or it is not education. The statement concludes with a suggestion that groups should be set up to study defects in the existing situation, and to promote lines of action by which they can be remedied. The statement has been followed by a message to the people from the Archbishops of Canterbury, York and Wales, the Primus of the Scottish Episcopal Church, and almost all the diocesan Bishops of England, Wales and Scotland, calling for a general reaffirmation of faith in God and resistance to the menace of Nazi evil.

The New President.

AS we said in our August number, we deplore the policy which calls for a new President of the Board of Education about once a year. In the last twenty years there have been no fewer than thirteen Presidents. We hope that the new President means to stay in his present post, and we are certain that all educationists will give him every support. Mr. Butler possesses high qualifications for his task—a task which any crusader might envy. Much will be required of him, for vested interests and the dead hand of the Treasury will be against him. We look to him to gird on his armour and fulfil the expectations which present stresses have aroused. We have said before, and we say again, that the best way of securing adequate discussion of authoritative proposals would be through the setting up forthwith of a Royal Commission on Education. We hope that this will be reconsidered. Meanwhile we offer Mr. Butler our hearty good wishes, trusting that before long he will be able to make an official announcement on behalf of the Government concerning the educational measures which it is intended to put in hand. He has the opportunity of making a deeper mark on English education than that made by any of his predecessors. It is the earnest wish of all educationists that he will take full advantage of this unique opportunity.

What is Education's 'Constituency'?

THE action of the Board in communicating only to local education authorities and to the accredited representatives of certain educational organizations the draft proposals for educational reform which have been worked out by the Board's Officers raises an issue of the first importance. Whatever one may think of the soundness of the Board's action from the standpoint of policy, its *ground* is quite clear. Obviously they were referring certain proposals to what they took to be their immediate ' constituency ' in the country. The question at issue is whether, in the present circumstances of the country and the state of public opinion, they showed wise judgment in so doing. We cannot think so. The ' constituency ' for education in this country is now very much more than the professionals who work the machine. Some of the shrewdest and soundest criticisms and suggestions concerning education come now from people not directly concerned with the machine at all. Also, among large numbers of thoughtful citizens and anxious parents education is coming to be looked upon, not as a limited or ' expert ' administrative service, but as the most important aspect of the nation's social policy. The Board seem to have missed a great chance of raising their steam in the more capacious boiler. What would be thought of a Ministry of Food which gave all their confidences to shopkeepers and wholesalers and had none for the great body of anxious consumers ? It is the consumer of the egg and not the hen that is the best judge of its quality.

A Fighting Speech.

LIEUT.-COL. TOM MORGAN, in his presidential address to the Head Teachers' Conference, voiced in vigorous and convincing fashion what nearly all teachers are thinking just now. Among the points he made were : Education should not be left, as Adam Smith said, to a few interested individuals, but rather should all people become interested in such a vital subject ; ' Democracy ' becomes a mere shadow without its handmaiden, ' Education ' ; reorganization got mixed up with economy, which functioned almost entirely at the expense of the teaching profession—witness the Geddes report ; Hadowism stresses the importance of senior

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education, but all branches of our educational system demand equal consideration; now is the time to plan for better school buildings and equipment; to allow 3s. 6d. per head per annum for books is miserably mean. Religious instruction, he said, should not be confined to one lesson in the time-table. "We claim that it is imparted in all lessons and at all times by the example and acts of the teachers quite as much as by what is conveyed in words. We cannot subscribe to the appointment of special teachers in this subject because religion is not a subject and should not be treated as such." He made no apology for referring to the question of a war bonus for all teachers, saying that, as usual, the profession was the last to receive any compensation commensurate with the cost of living. They willingly made sacrifices, but they wanted equality of sacrifice from every one. He concluded by welcoming Mr. Ramsbotham's recent pronouncements and hoping that he was speaking for the Government. "Education is the one thing that will make democracy safe." Teachers will be heartened by addresses like this to "fight the good fight to keep it safe".

Town and Country Planning.

FROM the beginning of the war it has been plain to all students of planning, and from the beginning of concentrated air raids plain to everybody, that the planning of the town and countryside will need far more drastic control and guidance than exist at present. We thought that it was generally agreed that the only satisfactory solution will be to set up a Central Planning Authority charged with the duty of preparing a national plan for the re-arrangement of housing in town and country, of industry including agriculture, of the location of business and necessary changes in transport arrangements. The report of the Commission on the Location of Industry, commonly known as 'The Barlow Report', and the Interim Report of the Uthwatt Committee, both assume that a National Planning Authority is essential. Instead of this, by what appears to us one of the most unfortunate compromises in English political history—which is not poor in compromises—there has been set up a Council of Ministers—*i.e.* the Minister of Health, as responsible for planning in England, the Secretary of State for Scotland, who is his counterpart there, with Lord Reith as Chairman—not in his capacity as Minister of Works and Buildings but 'personally'. It is something, as Lord Reith has said, that the Central Planning Authority shall exist 'in embryo', but it seems to us that the Government have missed a great opportunity at a time when the country was ready for a bold experiment. Education is bound to be affected by any scheme produced by the Central Authority, and we hope that educationists will be as insistent upon drastic action in national planning as in the education reforms which are their more immediate concern.

Youth and Its Leaders.

SIR FREDERICK MANDER made a sensible and refreshing speech in giving the inaugural address at the Youth Leaders' Courses at Bingley. He began by speaking of the danger of talking about Youth (spelt with a capital 'Y') and attributing to it all the virtues and contrasting it with elderly dulness and inefficiency. Young folk in their teens range between the extremes of the highbrow and the hooligan. Most of our young folk are ordinary decent people, like the rest of us, not to be deceived by platform uplift. They are human beings at a very sensitive stage of development, conscious of wonderings and unexplained desires, often rich with promise all too frequently frustrated by ignorance and lack of opportunity. At this time more than ever they need adult experience to organize their activities. Their chief enemies are, as always, ignorance and idleness. The antidotes are education and occupation, and these a service of youth should provide. Let us avoid talking about a youth *movement*, which implies the imposition of a certain set of ideas and the welding of masses of young people into a unity for particular purposes. None except those with vested interests would incur the danger of allowing the clamour of any one section of the community to dominate any scheme. We have rejected this kind of thing in favour of a Service of Youth whose flexibility fits ill with the enthusiasm of dogmatic specialists. We believe in developing sound characters in sound and informed minds and sound and well-built bodies. Sound character, an attractive personality and a strong sense of vocation are essential needs of youth leaders, but there must be training as well. We do not want well-meaning but uninstructed persons or interfering people who carry above their necks a 'committee face'. In fact 'leader' may not be the right word. 'Mentor' might be better but for its pedantic flavour, meaning as it does a wise counsellor and a good friend. Sir Frederick struck the right note of practical idealism. Even in deprecating too much talk about New Jerusalems he envisaged preparation for a massive forward movement when the end of the war brings time and opportunity.

War-Time Nurseries.

THE long-promised circular on war-time nurseries has at last been issued. It will disappoint many of those who were hoping for some central directing force. There are too many voluntary societies and officials involved—too many people to tread on each other's toes and say "This is my job, not yours", or "Where do I come in?" Further, those who believe that blind-alley training, even in war time, is strenuously to be avoided, will be apprehensive of the forms of quick, cheap-labour training offered to wardens and warden assistants, especially for the two to five year-olds. We must think of 'after the war'. It would seem to have been possible, with the help of the Training Colleges, to have evolved some form of training in the Colleges for one year (*i.e.* nine months), which, followed up by war-time experience in a nursery, might have counted, in the case of promising candidates, as the first step to the completion of training after the war. Perhaps, having arranged for immediate demands, authorities may be able to turn their attention to a longer-term policy.

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RELIGIOUS EDUCATION AND THE TEACHER

By the Rev. A. R. WALLACE, M.A., Headmaster, Sherborne School

IN an article entitled " Religious Instruction and the Training of Teachers " which appeared in *The Journal of Education* in April 1940, the Director of Education for Wakefield laid down with admirable lucidity some quite definite propositions, viz. :

> " With regard to religious knowledge any doubts as to whether it is at least equal in importance to other ' ordinary subjects of the curriculum ' have disappeared under the influence of a converted public opinion and enlightened official pronouncements " ;

and further on :

> " While recognizing the fundamentally pastoral character of religious teaching the report (*i.e.* Educational Pamphlet No. 114, *The Organization and Curriculum of Sixth Forms in Secondary Schools*, November 1938) treats Divinity as ' a subject of class-room teaching ' having a definite scope demanding particular qualifications and imposing certain requirements in the way of plan and syllabus."

Official attention is called for the first time in this pamphlet to the vitally important question of the teacher's fitness for his task and to his qualifications as a teacher of Divinity. Accepting this as a basis, the question which first presents itself centres about the definition of particular qualifications in the teacher. In this connexion the writer quotes from the Spens Report. " The first requisite in the teacher is sincerity." No one can dispute that. The report continues : " As to knowledge in proportion to his sincerity and his conviction of the importance of the subject he will continually be improving his equipment in order that on the one hand he may satisfy the critical of his class and on the other deal with the many misrepresentations which may be offered."

Translated into actual practice this amounts to nothing more or less than a qualification of willingness to read and to teach the subject. That is in fact the present position, and it cannot be considered in any way satisfactory ; for, if we accept the enunciation that religious knowledge is at least equal in importance to other subjects (a timid and tepid description, it would seem, of the Queen of sciences), then it must follow that the standard of qualification required of the teacher should be at least as rigorous as in other ordinary subjects of the curriculum. No man or woman is permitted to teach mathematics or chemistry simply on the basis of a readiness to do so. Some additional academic qualification is, quite rightly, demanded in these most important subjects.

The same principle must surely hold in the case of the (at least) equally important subject of religious knowledge, more particularly as it has been authoritatively admitted that Divinity has a definable scope demanding particular qualifications. As a thinking animal I may be deeply interested in biology ; we all must be to a certain extent ; but it would be considered fantastic if I were to attempt to teach this merely on the grounds of interest and willingness. Indeed, if I were to make the attempt, no one would pay the slightest attention to my teaching as lacking all authority : it would be considered, and rightly, ' amateurish nonsense '.

Why then in the name of common sense should the teaching of religion be relegated to this irregular and amateur standard ? Objections will be raised against the acceptance of any academic qualifications. It will be said that this will mean the thin edge of the wedge towards religious tests for teachers, but why should it ? Those men and women who do not wish to offer this subject will be in no way prevented from continuing to teach the other ordinary subjects. There is no reason why the insistence upon proper qualifications for voluntary teachers of religious knowledge should affect those who have not volunteered.

It will be objected that the prime qualification of sincerity in the teacher is not susceptible to test of any kind : but in actual practice in the case of candidates for ordination or for teachers in Sunday-schools means* can be and have been found for ensuring that they are fit and proper persons for this office : the same, *mutatis mutandis*, could be easily applied to teachers of religious knowledge in schools.

In point of fact at the present time, while lip-service is paid to the importance of religious teaching, when it comes to definite action there is a general tacit refusal on the part of authority to face the difficulties and an inclination to escape behind a smoke-screen of pious platitudes.

The questions which must be faced and answered can be resolved into a comparatively small space.

(1) Is educational authority prepared to exact the same standard of qualification in teachers of religious knowledge as in teachers of other ordinary subjects ?

The answer may be found in friendly and sympathetic counsel between the churches, administrators, and teachers.

(2) If the answer is in the affirmative, then is educational authority prepared to allow religious knowledge to rank as an optional subject in the teacher's certificate instead of as at present an additional optional subject ? The disadvantage of this position is that most candidates have not the time to spare for an additional optional subject. It takes all their energy and attention to complete their present course : by taking this additional optional subject they jeopardize their chances of qualifying in the others.

(3) Is educational authority prepared to insist that religious knowledge should be, like other subjects, open to inspection by H.M. Inspectors, who are duly qualified ?

If these questions can be answered in the affirmative then it will be hard to resist the corollary that the opening period of each day should be devoted to prayer and worship.

The syllabus itself presents few difficulties : the ' agreed syllabus ' is a most convenient and satisfactory guide : with the main highway so delimited and sign-posted, both the pupil and teacher will be able to stray for some considerable distance down many attractive and important side roads.

These diversions in reality provide the main themes of teaching : they can be chosen and followed as frequently and as far as individual inclination or specialized interest may dictate and then at their leisure the party may find their way back to the main road which both begins and ends with God.

To this end it is important to avoid the common mistake of supposing that a scripture lesson consists of the analysis of a certain section of the Bible in the Old or New Testament, aided largely by a published commentary in the teacher's hand.

One can no more teach scripture by this method than one can teach English by an analysis of Shakespeare's plays with the aid of Doctor Verity's notes. That the Bible must be the foundation of scripture teaching is obvious. A competent knowledge of certain books is clearly essential, but this detailed knowledge must be preceded or, better still, accompanied by a sufficiently wide and deep theological conspectus. Nothing in these days of secularism can be assumed. Some considerable time can and should be spent

* (i) In the case of ordinands :
- (*a*) An interview or interviews by responsible authorities to test vocation.
- (*b*) Some form of preparation, instructional, devotional, practical.

(ii) In the case of Sunday-school teachers :
- (*a*) Weekly preparation classes taken by the clergy
- (*b*) Attendance at annual summer-schools.

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in the consideration of such subjects as the nature and meaning of God ; the rational grounds of belief ; the meaning of faith ; the truths of the Incarnation and the Resurrection, and of the doctrine of the Atonement ; the functions of various ecclesiastical organizations ; the meaning of prayer, corporate and individual ; and the principles of Christian fellowship.

All these and other vitally important subjects can and should be clearly and courageously expounded by the teacher, who will be rewarded by an interest and an absorbed attention on the part of the pupils that are rarely accorded to purely textual analysis, unaccompanied by such preparatory outline.

So much at least can be done as scripture in the class-room, but the distinction must be maintained between the teaching of scripture and the whole pastoral function of the teacher of religion, of which the class-room scripture lesson forms a small though very important part. It is totally untrue to suppose that it does not matter what a man or woman believes so long as behaviour is not anti-social. Conduct must always be based upon belief of some sort, and instinctively the pupils will look for the practical demonstration of the class-room scripture lessons in the general attitude and personality of the teacher. The responsibility is enormous, but so is the privilege : hence the grave importance of an adequate academic preparation and the need of a qualification which will command both attention and respect.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION AND THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

An address given by the Rev. A. O. STANDEN, Vicar of Maidstone, at a meeting held on November 27, 1940, of the Kent Council of Religious Education

(Reprinted from the *Kent Education Gazette*)

THE subject upon our agenda papers is " The extent to which the educational system is contributing towards the development of the Christian community ". It is one which no one would attempt to speak about dogmatically without overpowering rashness. I do not know that anybody is capable of giving a direct and definite reply to the many questions that the subject raises. Certainly I am not equipped to give such final answers in any full or satisfactory way. I ask you, therefore, to be indulgent with me, as all that I may say is bound at the best to be most inadequate.

What I can try to do is to give evidence before you of certain tendencies which I have observed in my experience. It is not the experience of an educationist. It is the experience of an ordinary citizen mixing in common life with a great many other citizens of various points of view and differences of outlook. The only consolation I have is that in this company of experts I shall be immediately corrected for any mistake I may make in my ' composition '.

First, then, let me stress what seems to me the relevance of the subject at this particular moment. I think that the war has recalled the attention of many people to first principles, to spiritual laws, and ultimate standards, as the most practical parts of practical politics. My own contact with people shows me fairly clearly that a number of them are now beginning to realize, as they have not realized before, that we have got to decide what kind of a community we are to be free to choose in the future. The war is, in part, a struggle upon the subject of that decision. In every sphere of activity we are being compelled to face the questions—" What is your objective ? What is your aim ? What notion have you of the end you are pursuing ? "

If now we transfer those questions to the subject of the educational system, it seems to me that the answer presents itself in three ways.

What, in fact, is the impression we have of the object of our educational system ? It appears almost impertinent for me to suggest what it looks like before a company of this kind. From outside, where I mainly observe it, the impression is threefold. First it looks as if we purposed to impart some information—to teach knowledge. Secondly it looks as if our educational system is designed to equip its citizens for practical activity. Thirdly it looks as if the system intends to fashion a particular type of desired or desirable citizen for the community. I am not suggesting that these are the conscious aims of the system. But from the outside these are what they appear to be.

Now, clearly it is the third of these with which we are primarily concerned in our discussion, and with the other two only in relation to this aim of fashioning a particular type of desired or desirable citizen.

It is obvious that, if you wish to develop a Christian community, there are certain qualities that are required in the citizens. It might be helpful to pursue this discussion at some time from that angle—to discover precisely what those qualities are which you require in a citizen in order that he may take his share in the development of a Christian community. For the moment I propose, rather, to say a word or two about the nature of this aim.

It is an aim which is fraught with peril. There is no question about that. You have only to look at the Totalitarian States to observe how perilous is the task of anybody who attempts to fashion what seems to them a desirable citizen. It may quickly lead any one, whether ecclesiastics or politicians or whatever they are, to regiment the mind of a child into that particular point of view which seems to them desirable. And it is very easy, except there be every safeguard, simply to inculcate, from time to time as occasion prompts, the views of the particular political party in power. But we are, I suppose, in this country, or would claim that we are, endeavouring to mould our desirable type of citizens only within the limits of the freedom of creative personality. I am not at all sure that we are not liable to talk about freedom too glibly, too easily. It seems to me that in our love of liberty we often overlook the conditions of liberty. There are conditions. Freedom of personality is most insecure if its only guarantee is the law of the State. Freedom, as I understand it, is only safe and also secure for the citizen when it is rooted in the soil of a common religious culture.

Though fraught with peril, this aim of fashioning a desirable citizen has certainly become a recognized essential of our modern educational system. It is modern, I think, in its particular emphasis. Certainly since I left school the interest of education has shifted. I am certain that when I was at school my schoolmasters were more interested in the Latin they were trying to teach the pupil than they were in the pupil to whom they were trying to teach the Latin. Nowadays the emphasis is being placed more upon the pupil, and less exclusively upon the subjects. If this is so, the question in the discussion before us seems to be this : Does our educational order encourage in the pupil the distinctive type or character which will readily adapt itself to the life of a Christian community ?

It is very easy to give sweeping answers to that question both in the negative and in the affirmative. But people who jump to conclusions rarely alight on them. You may be able to judge how far this purpose is being fulfilled in the life of a particular school. I think you can ; but to speak in any sweeping decisive fashion in regard to the whole educational system would be utter folly. The system is not operated by machinery but by men. " It is men not walls that make the city."

In coming to a judgment upon this question, there are certain conditions which must be borne in mind. In the

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first place we have to make sure how far the schools are capable of providing our desirable citizen, and to what extent they are capable of ensuring the characters we require. I think it is a common misfortune of English institutions that they are often criticized and blamed for failing to do something which it is not in their power or province to do. I am uncertain—others in this room will know better than I—to what extent any vital change in the character of a nation can be secured solely by the deliberate planning of an educational system. We are often reminded that the community outside contributes to the school, just as the school is expected to contribute to the community outside. Teachers and headmasters have told me that many evils of which we sometimes complain, and for which we criticize the educational system, come from outside the school. They are part of the pattern of the community from which the children come. There is, for example, the question about the influence of the modern home. It is often claimed that the home is not an ally but the enemy of all that is best being attempted by the educational system. If that is so I would submit to you the question—must we, must our educational system just resign itself to that kind of consequence? Surely, I would say, if there is evil coming in from outside, or if the home influences are a hindrance, that is all the more reason for exercising and developing in school the qualities which are neglected or ignored outside. The educational system cannot be content to serve as a mere acquiescent reflection of both the good and the evil of the community.

Now let me pass on to show how, as it appears to me, the system may endeavour—or does endeavour—to meet the requirements of our objective—namely, the fashioning of a kind of citizen well adapted to the life of a Christian community.

I think I would say that the school begins to do this by training children for a larger Christian society in its own smaller Christian society. I believe that more and more the tendency of our schools—of all of them, of all types of school—is towards the constitution of a school community. The school thus becomes not merely a place of learning; it becomes a place where children learn how to live. That seems to be the prevailing tendency. It is growing. If this is so, then there are two things to observe:

1. If our object is to create a Christian community outside the school, by first creating a school community inside, then that school community must be directed and controlled not indeed by ecclesiastics, but by a Christian philosophy of life. It must live by standards that are Christian; it must look to ideals that are Christian; it must engage in practices that are Christian.

2. The second thing to be observed in this connexion is that this idea and practice of each school as its own small community needs to be linked up much more closely to the larger community of the world outside. I feel that there is too much isolation between the larger community of the town or nation and the little communities of its schools dotted about within the town and nation. Children when they leave school ought to pass with much greater ease than they do into the life and service of the community outside—a life and a service which they have learnt, so to speak, in the nursery of the school. Let a familiar example drawn from our own domestic history illustrate my meaning. At the moment I feel that the school community is representing in relation to the outside world the very bad practice of a certain class in the nineteenth century, who made sure that they should see as little as possible of their children by confining them to the isolation of the nursery. I feel that to a considerable extent bridges must be built between the larger community, where the child is destined one day to practise the art of living, and the smaller community in which the child is learning how to live. Only so will the transition from the one to the other become a natural process. Only so can the lessons of the school community become to the mind of the child the aims of his adult life. We need these bridges.

All I have said in the above observations has emphasized the importance of what is called 'atmosphere' in the community life of the school. I believe that this is supreme. I believe that in the development of a Christian community the right 'atmosphere' is as important as, if not more important than, the right curriculum. It is foolish to suppose that we can begin to develop a Christian community without a knowledge of the Christian facts and what they entail; but, if the 'atmosphere' of a school does not match the specific instruction given there, I think I know which of the two is going to win. It will not be the instruction.

May I close with a word or two about the religious instructional side of the child's life?

1. I am certain—perhaps you would expect me to be certain—that the presentation of Christianity to the child, the instruction of the Christian faith, does involve the presentation in some way or another, of the fact of institutional religion. I do not think we can get away from that. If you are going to teach Christianity at all you have got to teach and present the fact of the Christian Society. Whatever limitations may be imposed upon such instruction a child who is expected to go out into the world to aid the development of a Christian community cannot be left in doubt of his need of sharing in the life of the Christian Fellowship. I think that this need requires emphasis at the present time.

2. Secondly, a Christian community involves the belief that in order to build well and soundly a man requires more than his own unaided resources can supply. We cannot build the Kingdom of God without God. The kind of vague diffused Christianity, that counterfeit of the authentic Gospel, which implies that man by his own collective initiative can build 'the world of heart's desire' is surely, at this time of day, discredited. The true belief that man needs God, if he is to have Christian society at all, will, I think, become most naturally the belief of a child, through the art and craft of Christian worship. As the child is brought to God in worship, there passes gradually into his life, and so ultimately into the life of the community, the recognition of the Christian God as the final authority—the way, the truth, and the life. Only in touch with the supernatural can even the natural survive.

I would end, therefore, by suggesting to you that "the extent to which the educational system is contributing towards the development of the Christian community" is the extent to which it is enabled to teach the citizens of to-morrow to live not merely as the brief inhabitants of an earthly community, but here and now to live in this temporary home as citizens whose destiny belongs to the abiding City of God.

AN important deputation representing the Anglican and Free Churches has been received by the President of the Board of Education, accompanied by the Parliamentary Secretary, Mr. Chuter Ede, and the Permanent Secretary. The object of the deputation, which was introduced by the Archbishop of Canterbury, was to support the five points contained in the Archbishop's letter to the Press of last February. The President said that the proposal that a Christian education should be given to all scholars (subject to a conscience clause), by teachers competent and willing to give it, corresponded with what was the universal or almost universal, practice in the schools, and he certainly hoped that, when the time came for legislation, it would include a provision on the lines which the deputation desired, subject to the necessary safeguards against religious tests for teachers. He said that the remaining proposals required further consideration. The President's refusal to give a specific reply to these proposals until he has had an opportunity of full consultation with his officers, with the representatives of the local education authorities, and of the teachers, can well be understood, but it is to be hoped that action will not be postponed until after the war.

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TO EVERY CHILD A CHANCE IN LIFE

Presidential Address delivered by EMRYS PROSSER, at the Annual Conference of the Federation of Welsh Class Teachers' Associations held in Cardiff on June 7, 1941

IN peace-time the attitude of the masses toward political and social questions is often characterized by a deadly inertia. But good sometimes springs from adversity, and Nazi bombs have had the strange effect of preparing public opinion for that national planning which has long been urged by experts and social reformers. The architects of the new Britain are already busy at their drawing-boards preparing plans for the new order which we all so ardently hope will emerge when the war is over.

Education too has its planners, for a ferment of thought is stirring the educational world. The last war stimulated a demand for educational progress, and, in this war too, far-sighted educationists are discussing what improvements in the country's education are necessary in response to the impact of modern events and ideas.

The first essential is to know and obtain agreement as to what we are aiming at in education. Up to now, it is questionable whether we have, as a Nation, evolved a coherent creed in regard to what should be the fundamentals of our national education.

But war is a powerful stimulant to thought. The bombing of our cities has laid bare old sores in our social system, and the public conscience has been stirred and shocked more profoundly than ever before. By aggravating our social problems, the war has hastened the solution of these problems. More and more people are demanding a new social order after the war, and there is a consensus of opinion that this new order should take the form of a more genuine democracy, a democracy based neither on wealth nor on privilege, but on the principle that every man and woman shall have equal opportunities to share the benefits of civilization.

The Prime Minister crystallized these sentiments in an address which he delivered at Harrow, his old school, a short time ago. " When the war is won ", he told the boys, " it must be our aim to work to establish a state of society where the advantages which in the past have been enjoyed by the few shall henceforth be enjoyed by the many."

The Beacon Light Toward Which We Must Shape Our Course

Now, if we accept such a view of the new social order which must be built, the first essential is equal opportunity in education. This phrase is being freely used as the underlying principle of educational reconstruction after the war, for the sort of education we want depends on the sort of society we believe in.

It may be argued that there cannot be educational equality as long as there is social inequality. Yet a great deal can be accomplished, even under present conditions, to reduce the gulf which now exists and to bring about a greater measure of equality.

One has only to cross the Tweed to test the truth of this statement. In Scotland, thanks to a network of scholarships and grants, equality of education is not merely a pious phrase, and ' class ' education hardly exists.

The Dominions too, and the United States of America have a far more democratic system of education than we have in this country. In their schools it is not unusual to see the son of a rich man sit side by side with the son of a clerk or artisan, and the latter has every opportunity of receiving as good an education as his neighbour throughout his scholastic life.

It can be argued too that, as human beings are not equal, you will always find a few outstripping the many. But in reply to this it may be pointed out that in a race it is still customary to line up all the runners level at the start. The existence of equality of opportunity does not merely depend on an open road ; an equal start is just as essential.

When the war is over, taxation and other considerations will have levelled many of the financial and social distinctions which have existed between the various classes of the population. " The war has so modified relations between class and class ", says Cardinal Hinsley, " that fresh insistence on social principles is necessary."

If we keep in view therefore the conception of a social order changing in heart and structure, educational change falls naturally into place as part of the larger movement, for educational institutions follow closely the pattern of society. Viewed in this light the difficulties do not appear insuperable. The important thing is to have an aim, and then to work for it and never lose sight of it. No nobler motto could be emblazoned on our educational banner than the words " To every child an equal chance in Life ". To quote the words of Sir Cyril Norwood, " Let us take this ideal as a beacon-light, toward which we can shape our course ".

Our Two Systems of Education

The greatest hindrance to the achievement of equality of opportunity in education is the fact that we have in England and Wales to-day, not one unified system of education, but two systems, determined not by educational but by social considerations, the two systems being separated throughout their whole duration by an unclimbable fence. " The products of the two systems do indeed meet at the universities ", writes Sir Cyril Norwood, " they meet but they do not mix ". This one short sentence epitomizes the dangers and difficulties arising out of the social stratification of our educational system. The question that arises therefore is " Should a society which has determined to get rid of its social divisions tolerate a system which tends to perpetuate them ? "

The Public Schools

Since the publication of Colonel Bingham's notorious letter and its repercussions, the public schools have become front-page news. There has been a great deal of discussion regarding the merits and demerits of this unique feature of English education. A great deal of nonsense has been written concerning the sacerdotal qualities of these institutions by the protagonists of this system, and an equal amount of nonsense written by those who decry the public schools. It is important, however, that an educational issue of such importance should be discussed without malice or political rancour.

It is alleged against the public schools that their very existence promotes a special kind of class-consciousness in their products which is incompatible with a society that aims at a genuine democracy ; that they create definite barriers which could not exist if the whole population went to the same schools ; that the existence of this system increases the chances of misunderstanding between the classes, since from the earliest years it separates the privileged from the unprivileged, and prevents the experiences of the one class from impenetrating the experiences of the other.

Prof. Laski makes the interesting point that the fact of the well-to-do having their own schools is an important factor in slowing down the general educational progress of this country. " I am convinced ", he asserts, " that many of the schools on the condemned list would not have remained there had the children of the well-to-do had to use them."[1]

Mr. Aneurin Bevan, too, believes that the presence of the

[1] *The Journal of Education*, February, 1941, p. 45.

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rich in our State Schools would result in benefits for all. Conservative members, he asserts, who hardly ever turn up when the Educational Estimates are before the House unless they are engaged in an economy campaign, would then take as much interest in education as they now take in the Income Tax. " Just think ", he continues, " how the influential rich would rave about the shocking lavatory accommodation, the large classes, the meagre equipment of so many of our State Schools."[2]

But the chief cause of grievance against the public schools is the fact that the possession of a school label of a certain kind, irrespective of the quality of the education received, constitutes a claim to privileged status, and that the products of the public schools gravitate to the best positions in the Government, in the Services and in industry. Mr. Aneurin Bevan has told us that the reason for this is that those who have the power to confer favours are themselves products of the public schools *and like the smell of the same herd.*[3]

It is generally admitted, however, that the education and training given in these schools are excellent. A system which has enabled the State to be served by men such as Mr. Winston Churchill, Mr. Attlee, Mr. Hugh Dalton and General Wavell can certainly claim to have made a valuable contribution to the nation's requirements.

The important point is that the educational advantages of the public schools should be available for pupils from poorer as well as those from more prosperous homes.

A Royal Commission should be set up on the lines suggested by Professor Julian Huxley to consider the problem of education in a democratic country, with reference particularly to the position of the public schools in our national life.

School Camps

If it is true that the chief value of the public school lies, not in what is taught in school hours, but in what is learnt from the communal life of a boarding school, indirectly and unconsciously, and, if it is thought too that the products of this system are on the whole good, this is a strong argument for the extension of the boarding-school system.

The State's first experiment in this direction—the National Camps—has proved a great success. Mr. Malcolm MacDonald has referred to these school camps as one of the most significant pieces of work to which Parliament has lent its hand in recent times, and has said that, when the war is over, we ought to make adequate provision for sending town children regularly to spend a reasonable period of each year in the country. " They are places ", he said, " where successive generations of school children can get an enrichment of their bodies, minds, and spirits which will enable them, in their day, to maintain the highest traditions of a race which has always drawn much of its strength from the lovely countryside of its birth."

Those who have visited these camps are rightly enthusiastic about an experiment which has almost Utopian possibilities. It is claimed that these camps, with their closely-knit community life, enable an apprenticeship to be served for the larger community outside. The fact of the children being on the premises day and night leads to the growth of vigorous school activities. Academic and text-book education can be reduced to a minimum, and school work becomes more practical and real. A ' balance of living ' is secured whereby town children, through living in the country, become freed from urban prejudices and limitations.

Now that this experiment has proved such a great success educationists will demand after the war a vast increase in the number of these ' State Boarding Schools ' so that their benefits shall be made available to all children.

Equality of Decency

No child should be compelled to spend his school life in a dingy unhealthy building. Children are, to an incredible degree, the products of the environment in which they are brought up.

If the school is a slum building, ill ventilated and without proper sanitary arrangements, then the quality of the children who emerge from it will be impoverished.

A ruthless sweeping away of these ugly, sooty ram-shackle erections which now pass as schools is a long overdue reform. Their destruction, never before envisaged on the ground of economy, and now being carried out by an unwillingly beneficent enemy, is an unqualified blessing. We need not only equality of opportunity ; we need also equality of decency.

Equality of Breathing Space

No real progress in education is possible either until the size of classes has been reduced to educable proportions. Until this reform has been achieved all the ' highfalutin ' talk about a New Testament for Education is mere claptrap. Until this abuse has been redressed, the money spent on building and equipping the new schools will bring no adequate return. Democracy in this country will be all the safer when this reform has been carried out, for mass-production methods in the class-room, suppressed initiative, and dreary routine are productive, not of a self-disciplined, intelligent race of citizens, but of a species of human robots, " automata for mechanical subservience under a dictator " ; fertile soil for unscrupulous propaganda ; easy prey for any political gangster who happens to come along.

Parity of Conditions

Equality of opportunity demands that every type of school must be regarded as having equal social prestige. It follows therefore that every type of school shall receive, in proportion to its needs, the same consideration in regard to premises, staffing, and equipment. Though the bulk of true secondary education in this country, if secondary is interpreted in the Hadow sense of ' post-primary ', is given in the Senior and Central Schools, yet by a strange paradox these schools are still conducted under elementary regulations. " A thing is not worse, because it is different ", wrote Tacitus, and there is no case whatever for regarding the education given at the schools attended by the great majority of children over eleven as inferior to that given in schools called secondary.

Prof. Tawney has used this argument : " Many of the children attending the former are of precisely the same age as their comrades in the latter, and have the same need of air for their lungs, playing-fields for their legs, and classes small enough to give a reasonable chance to both pupil and teacher ".

Raising of the School-Leaving Age

A further vital step toward the attainment of equality of opportunity in education is the raising of the school-leaving age.

Sir Richard Livingstone in his book *The Future in Education*, holds that the fundamental defect of our educational system is that in all cases it comes to an end with adolescence.

If continued education is desirable for the welfare of some pupils—and this is shown by the fact that parents who are financially able ensure that their children have it, regardless of any so-called evidence of ability to profit—then it should be provided for all.

Yet what do we find ? " One is met at the very threshold ", writes Sir Cyril Norwood, " by the blunt fact that one child must go out into the world at 14 and find such employment as he may, while another is protected, guided, and maintained through the whole period of his adolescence, and may be free to postpone even the consideration of his life's career, until he has finished with the university. Something must clearly be done ", he warns us, " to fill in this immense gap ".

The school-leaving age should be raised to 15, therefore, as soon as circumstances permit, and as a long-range policy,

[2] *Ibid*, p. 47. [3] *Ibid*, p. 48.

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the adoption of a leaving age to 16 must be envisaged as inevitable.

Pari passu with the raising of the leaving age, there should be restored also the day continuation school programme on the lines of the Fisher Act.

Not only should the State plan to keep alive the educational flame through adolescence to maturity, but, in order to make the plan complete, coherent, and comprehensive, the scheme must provide also facilities for the leisure hours of its young people.

Up to now Britain has paid less attention to the training of its youth than almost any other country in Europe, and it is a sad commentary on our social conscience that it should take a war to force us to face the problem. The omission is all the more remarkable when it is realized how much the future of our country depends on the right training of its youth.

In the meantime we are confronted with the fact that in this country to-day, six-sevenths of the population, the very backbone of the nation, leave school at the age of 14, the vast majority drifting aimlessly through adolescence to early manhood, spending their time as one writer tells us in " hops, chips, flicks and kicks ". Many of them, through lack of guidance and opportunity, grow up caricatures of the fine men and women which they would have become had they been given the chance.

An article on " The Problem of Youth," by Mr. Basil Henriques, contains a scathing indictment of society for its failure to deal effectively with this question. " Our present system of the treatment of youth ", he writes, " is interesting from the point of view of the great wastage it eventually causes in national expenditure. The population of our prisons ", continues Mr. Henriques, " is largely recruited from those who have fallen into crime in adolescence. They are not by nature criminals, but, denied a proper outlet for their high spirits, they have satisfied their desire for activity and adventure in the wrong way, and they have been insufficiently trained to withstand the temptations which they meet."

Mr. Kenneth Lindsay has recently given startling figures concerning the magnitude of the youth problem. There are in this country 3,000,000 young people between the ages of 14 and 20 of whom only about 500,000 attend some form of full-time education. The remainder, he tells us, are in " no man's land ". In spite of a network of evening classes, youth centres and clubs, fully 60 per cent are untouched by any of these organizations.

These young people, wage-earners though they may be, are still apprentices to life, and it is the bounden duty of the State to look after them. Youth welfare must take its place therefore as a recognized province of education, side by side with the elementary, secondary, and further education—as an integral part of development of the educational system, and not merely an improvisation to supply its deficiencies.

" Young people ", to quote the oft-reiterated words of Lord Baden-Powell, " like doing a job and feeling responsible." In the hour of the nation's peril our young men are burning to be of service and to help positively the national effort. This is shown by the recent rapid growth of the various forms of youth service corps up and down the country.

But the vital question is, ' How long is this enthusiasm, aroused for war work, to be translated into terms of peace ? ' What is going to be the long-term inspiration that will keep the forces now being rallied interested after the war ?

Maybe this dynamic will manifest itself, as one writer suggests, when the youth of this country begins to realize that it can play a part, a unique and vital part, in the struggle of the whole people toward a higher stage of society.

Admission to the Universities

How far short of the principle of an equal opportunity is our present system in regard to admission to the universities ? The answer is disquieting.

Such terms as an educational ladder or broad highway are singularly inappropriate to describe the means whereby a pupil may proceed from the elementary school, through the secondary school to the university. It would be more correct to describe it as a very slippery greasy pole, for only one in 200 who start from the bottom reach the top.

" Unless they have been wise enough to choose parents with means ", writes Mr. Lionel Elvin, " (and failure to do this is the elementary school child's first mistake) they enter the university by a combination of brains, smart examination technique, and good fortune in getting money from authorities and institutions."

It has been proved statistically that the opportunity of a son of fee-paying parents to proceed from a secondary school to a university is more than forty times that of an ex-elementary school boy whose father could not afford secondary school fees.

How far do the universities themselves conform to the principle of equality of opportunity ? The late Prof. Dibelius, a foreign observer, described Oxford and Cambridge as rich men's universities. He affirmed, too, that these universities are the expression of the educational needs of the well-to-do. Yet nine out of ten headships in our secondary schools go to the products of the older universities ! Thus the dice is loaded at every turn against the child of poor parents.

The United States has one of every 125 of its people at a university, compared with one university student in every 1,150 people in England, one to 1,000 people in Wales and one to 455 people in Scotland. In the U.S.A. too, which is by no means a socialist country, it is possible, in almost every State of the Union, for every citizen's son or daughter, if he passes the necessary examinations, to have a university tuition free. It is obvious from these facts that we have a long way to go in order to catch up with the United States in regard to equality of educational opportunity.

Anomalies as Between Different Areas

No plan for providing equality of opportunity in education can succeed until the anomalies which now exist between one area and another are removed.

It is obvious that a wealthy area carrying no financial burden is able to make wider and better educational provision than a poor area heavily burdened with rates.

Statistics reveal the tremendous disparity which at present exists as between one area and another. The percentage of special places awarded to secondary schools ranges from under 25 per cent to 100 per cent. Secondary school fees range from something over four guineas to thirty guineas.

The total net local education authority expenditure per child (elementary) ranges from £24 9s. 4d. to £9 6s. 3d.

To a child in one area, four types of post-primary school may be available, senior, central, technical, and grammar. In other areas the only alternative to the grammar school is the senior school.

Is it intelligent or democratic, it is pertinent to ask, that the accident of residence should so largely determine a child's educational opportunities ?

Not only may a child be a victim of educational inequality because he happens to live in a locality heavily burdened with rates, but even in the same area, there cannot be equality for all children, if elementary and secondary education are under different authorities.

Sir Frederick Mander in a recent speech drew attention to the absurdities of the present system. " We have 300 local education authorities ", he told his audience, " and at present we grade them as we grade out public-houses. Some are fully licensed, and some are only half licensed ; some are permitted to sell the whole range of educational beverages, including the more heady wines of secondary and technical education. The rest are merely educational beer-houses, and may sell only the proletarian beverage of elementary schooling. This ridiculous system ", he maintained, " must

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be brought to an end. We need fewer and larger administrative units, and these should be fully licensed ".

Environment and Attainment

The basic inequality is that which exists as between home and home, and, whatever ideal pattern educational administrators may seek to impose upon the schools, they will continue to reflect social and economic realities.

A highly important report on the effect of environment on education has been issued recently by the Glasgow Education Committee. " It is highly significant," the report states, " that the results show an almost precise mathematical relationship ", *i.e.* that attainment is exactly in inverse ratio to the quality of nutrition and environment. In plain words, the poorer the home the poorer the school record. This authority, by providing hot meals, &c., regularly at one of its schools in an attempt to remedy bad home conditions, was able to raise this Group VIII school to the scholastic level of a Grade IV school.

" What a magnificent change could be effected in one generation ", wrote one educational journal, when referring to this experiment, " were every local authority in the land to introduce similar treatment for its unprivileged children ".

Without waiting for a change in the social order, a great deal could be done, even at this juncture, to minimize the incidence of inequality as between home and home by the simple expedient of a more generous distribution of maintenance grants and the elimination of school fees.

The question of equality of environment is not an educational but a social question, but the two problems are inexorably and inextricably bound up with each other.

The State has performed only half its duty to the child if it has regard only to the provision of educational facilities, and shows no active concern in the nature of his home environment. Nor can the teacher discharge his full obligation to his pupil if he is content to concern himself merely with his duties in the class-room.

It is generally admitted that only when the defects of our present social system are remedied can education exert its maximum influence. It follows, therefore, that the true educator is something more than a mere pedagogue. Brought face to face in the class-room with the inequalities of the system which now exists, he is compelled through sheer force of circumstances to become a social reformer.

If we sincerely believe that every child must have a real chance in life, it is our plain duty as teachers to mobilize public opinion on the side of such reforms as will combat and destroy those forces which now bar the way to equality of educational opportunity—forces inside the home itself, such as poverty, with its attendant evils of malnutrition and disease, and forces outside the home such as ignorance, callous indifference, vested interest, prejudice, and finally administrative muddle in regard to the control of education.

This then is our mission, nay our privilege, to help secure for each child a square deal in education.

As to our mission inside the class-room, one could wish for no finer inspiration than the words of Mr. F. C. Happold, " This and nothing less is the task of the schools of England at this time, to create a generation of militant youth, dedicated to the task of building, out of the turmoil of the present age, a lovelier, finer England, an England disciplined yet free, a society planned for social justice within a framework of intellectual and spiritual liberty, an England which, because she has recreated herself, may yet recreate the world ".

SCHOOLS AND SOCIETY

By W. O. LESTER SMITH, Director of Education, Manchester

THERE are two principal ways in which a school leads a community life : one is by means of its corporate activity within the school frontiers, the other by participating in social or civic activities outside its own boundaries. Both ways are important in their educational consequences and in their influence on our national character ; it seems likely that, if post-primary education is reconstructed after the war, those intra- and extra-mural aspects of school life will receive more than their present share of attention.

Within the school British education is admittedly strong in its emphasis on character-training and its stress on the art of living together. Although at the moment people seem rather more interested in the shortcomings of our public schools than in their virtues, few will gainsay that our school tradition owes much to their cultivation of the corporate life as a method of rearing good citizens and instilling a sense of leadership. What was best in the public-school revival of mid-Victorian days has now been absorbed into our general educational philosophy with the result that schools of every type in this country practise in some degree the various methods of indirect training in social habit which the great Victorian headmasters were so fond of expounding. This training begins at the nursery stage and permeates the whole range of school provision ; Margaret Macmillan was as emphatic in her stress on the significance of a corporate life as Arnold or Thring. Nor must we ever forget how much we owe to assistant masters and mistresses as architects of this fine tradition : consider, for example, the influence which men like Bowen of Harrow have had on our educational and even our political thought. His " play the game " has certainly had much to do with our national faith—perhaps excessive, and sometimes misplaced—in the virtues of team-spirit and co-operation. When taught too narrowly such an ethic can produce an exaggerated zeal for house or school, and in national affairs a tendency to be all for the party and seldom for the State. But it is a valuable social cement, and it is not, as experience has shown, incompatible with an individualism that can be enterprising and audacious. When in 1903 the Elementary School Code included a first reference to " the corporate life of school ", it was regarded as a rather exciting innovation ; to-day some of the best social activity and leadership training is to be found in elementary schools, and if, as so many hope, all post-primary education operates in the future under one code, it will be found that public, secondary, and senior schools have as a common background this faith in a well-developed communal life as a means of acquiring subconsciously a sense of social discipline and a decent civic spirit.

It is sometimes said that the residential school is a better training ground for character than the day school because it has a fuller and more continuous corporate existence. Indeed, a leading public-school headmaster contended the other day that such schools can accomplish a far more complete religious training because they have the boy twenty-four hours a day. One suspects that this argument is founded on a good many fallacies : for, as Aristotle and many since have observed, the proof of the pudding is in the eating, and it is questionable whether the public schools have a monopoly of saints or even of Scripture credits. For a training in the civic virtues it is doubtful whether any institution can provide anything that will compare with the double advantage of a good home and a good day school. Without, however, pursuing this ancient controversy, we can agree with the headmaster to the extent of concurring in the view that religious and social training can be far better accomplished when a school lives the life of a corporate society. In that respect it is possible that the public schools have an advantage not always shared by schools which have grown up since 1870 or 1902.

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Redeveloped under the aegis of the State the latter are, in spite of their full social life, not as a rule corporate entities, operating under their own instrument, ordinance, or charter. It may be argued that there is not much in that, and that the value of a separate ordinance is at most one of status in a world in which status counts for less and less. It is possible, however, that the point has more substance in it than we are ready to admit, and that the idea of the separate ordinance is based on thoroughly sound educational considerations.

Most of our schools, it must be remembered, have grown to maturity during a period in which a sort of neo-Hegelian outlook has held sway in government circles. A gentlemanly kind of *étatisme* has permeated the innumerable codes, circulars and administrative memoranda which have regulated their existence. They have often had to turn and presently to right-about-turn to comply with requirements; they have drunk more milk, arranged more periods of physical training, and done many other things not because it was their own idea but because the Great Leviathan in his infinite wisdom said so. Schools have waited in grim suspense while the Hadow and the Spens Committees indulged in years of deliberation, producing conclusions involving mass organization and reorganization. Applied in an English way by a Board of Education which still practises Matthew Arnold's sweet reasonableness, this regimentation from a central switchboard allows room for local initiative and some pleasant diversity. But it has its dangers. The totalitarians have shown us how an all-powerful state can misuse education to serve political ends; control under a Plato may turn a myriad eyes to the light, but under a Hitler it can, by a Lacedaemonian twist of the screw, be made to produce a generation of militarists and destroy the peace of the world. There is much to be said for local authority or governing body as bulwarks against regimentation by circulars, examination syllabuses, and administrative memoranda; and there is a positive value in an age of reconstruction in having an educational order which will allow much elasticity and room for bold experiment. When, about forty years ago, Maitland presented Gierke with such enthusiasm to English readers, the implications were nothing like so clear as they are to-day; now Maitland's action has almost a prophetic quality, a message for our times, in that Gierke shows by reference to the mediaeval world how important a part corporations, associations, and societies can play in the framework of civilization. It was against such a background that many of our schools came into being as living communities duly incorporated; William of Wykeham, for example, occupies many pages in defining his ordinances which prescribe that wardens, scholars, clerks, and others "shall associate together as colleagues and collegiate persons". In the new educational order is there not room for some restoration and expansion of the collegiate element in school government?

If the public schools have been successful in showing the way to a corporate school life, it must be confessed that they have never met with much success in their extra-mural contacts. Here the new modern, central, or senior school is doing some magnificent work, succeeding often in creating itself a college or educational cathedral for its immediate neighbourhood. This is a great improvement upon the aloofness to which grammar schools have, to their own loss, so often been prone throughout the ages. "The School", Dewey once said, "is at present engaged largely upon the futile task of Sisyphus. It is endeavouring to form practically an intellectual habit in children for use in a social life which is, as it would almost seem, carefully and purposely kept away from any vital contact with the child who is thus undergoing training. The only way to prepare for social life is to engage in social life". Schools which make training in good citizenship their central aim are often most exclusive in their contacts; it is, however, surely important that pupils should receive their initiation into the civic virtues in an environment of good neighbourliness. What varies, T. H. Green wisely observes, is not so much duty to a neighbour as the practical answer to the question who is my neighbour.

NURSERY SCHOOLS

By DOROTHY B. HALL, Nursery Training Department, Homerton College, Cambridge

THE need for nursery schools as part of the national system of education has long been patent to those interested in the well-being of children under 5; the problems of evacuation have made the need acute. A correspondent to *The Times Educational Supplement* of June 28 has said that there are thousands of children between the ages of 2 and 5 waiting to come out to the reception areas as soon as accommodation can be found for them. War-time nurseries are rapidly being established up and down the country to deal with this situation, and while the problem of staffing is arousing controversy, there is complete unanimity as regards the need for such nurseries. Many people hitherto unaware of the existence of nursery education are anxious now to know something about it.

The aim of the nursery school is to provide for the child of 2 to 5 the conditions of a good nursery, where, in a social setting, he may have scope and freedom to develop all his powers. The first nursery schools were founded to give the children of poor parents the right conditions for physical development, but these children are not the only section of society who need nursery schools. In these days of small families children of all classes need such schools in order to be freed from a society which is largely adult and where they must so often feel little and inferior, and to be put in an environment where there is time for independence and freedom to experiment and use initiative. During the years before 5 the foundations of health and character are laid, and for this reason alone these years may rightly be considered the most important years of life. Dr. Arnold Gesell, of Yale University, one of the ablest and most experienced of child psychologists, stresses the importance of the pre-school years as the most critical period in the development of the individual; the researches of Dr. Susan Isaacs, Dr. Charlotte Bühler, and others offer ample evidence in support of this statement.

A nursery school is in the charge of a superintendent who must have had a minimum of two years' college training for this work. She must understand fully the needs of normal healthy children in order to provide them with equipment suitable to ensure good physical and mental health and growth. She should be a keen student of psychology; she should know sufficient about the abnormal child to be able to cope with the difficulties that may arise; and she should have sufficient knowledge of sick children to be able to diagnose disorders of the nervous and physical system and to render first aid. To supplement her work the school doctor visits the school at regular intervals, examines each child in the presence of the parent, and gives advice and suggestions. The school nurse pays even more frequent visits and treats children for minor ailments. But medical supervision alone does not ensure physical health. Each child must have opportunities for free movement in the fresh air and sunshine whenever possible, and regular times for sleep. He must also be trained to form right habits of personal hygiene such as those involved in washing, teeth cleaning, the use of a handkerchief, excretion, &c. The nursery school treats such habits as part

(*Continued on page 378*)

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of the normal daily routine and the child accepts them as such without fuss.

While the function of the nursery school is rightly considered to be educational, it is not to be regarded as a place where formal instruction is given ; the child under 5 is not ready for such teaching. He needs what may be called training ; this is not intended to inculcate knowledge but to supplement his natural growth. It is an accepted fact of child psychology that if a child is in an environment which is interesting to him, his curiosity will lead him spontaneously to investigate and to learn from his experience. The nursery school therefore surrounds him with those things which will give him experience of lasting value, and leaves him to experiment, at the same time giving him the security of having an adult in the background who understands him and can give him just the help he needs when he needs it.

A description of a nursery school which has been built and opened by private enterprise since the war began will show more clearly how these principles have been put into practice. This school is only one of many nurseries where evacuated children under 5 are being cared for. After the war it will take in children living in the locality. Most of the children are evacuated with their mothers, billeted in houses where they are often given one small room for eating and sleeping, with little resemblance to an ordinary home life. If they are allowed access to the garden of the house it is often grudgingly, and with many regulations. Until there was something provided for the children they were forced to spend their days wandering aimlessly round the shops with their mothers. The school takes 42 such children.

The building stands in a garden bordered with tall elms in the shade of which the summer life of the nursery is lived. Flowers grow all round the building and in several large beds. When these first came out they were at once picked, but as they came out thick and fast curiosity was satisfied, and they are now left to grow and their progress is carefully watched.

The inside of the building is specially planned to meet the needs of the children. They come into a cloakroom where each one has his own peg marked with a picture which will be easy for him to remember. Independence is encouraged, and each child takes off his own clothes, hangs them on his peg and changes his shoes before proceeding to the bathroom. Shoe-changing presents a difficulty to some children, but in a place where every one tries to do things for himself and where no one will hurry him there is every incentive to try, and the sense of accomplishment is tremendous when the job is really done—alone.

In the bathroom, where the washbasins and W.C.s are the right height for the children, each child has his own peg, marked with the same picture as his other, where he finds his face-cloth and towel, his comb, toothbrush and mug. It is a matter of habit now to go straight in, visit the lavatory, clean teeth, wash hands and tidy hair if necessary before going into the playrooms.

Before starting to play each child pours himself out a mug of milk, drinks it, and washes up the mug. There is very little spilling, but accidents happen sometimes and a nursery-school child goes immediately for a cloth or mop and clears up the mess. Clearing up is a game at first—two-year-olds would like to be sweeping and mopping all day purely for the joy of the activity, but at the more advanced age of 3 or 4 the child has become accustomed to the tool and keeps it for its proper use.

The playrooms are equipped with toys of all kinds, and with furniture of a suitable size for the children. The chairs and tables are small and light and can easily be moved by the children. The toys are of all sizes, to suit all needs. There are large trucks and trains which can be pushed and pulled. These are always popular and are generally piled high with bricks and other luggage and trundled about all day. There are cupboards within easy reach of the children where toys of all types are kept. Children soon learn where different things are kept, and once this is learnt they are as a rule most particular about it. They know in which cupboard the doll's furniture lives, or the tea-set, or the puzzles, and woe betide anyone who puts them away wrongly !

When the children have sung a simple hymn, said " Thank You " for special things such as birthdays, new clothes, or new flowers, they busy themselves with self-chosen occupations. They may choose to paint at an easel with big brushes and jars of paint, or may choose clay. The latter is a favourite medium—there is so much that one can do with it, roll it, pinch it, squeeze it, &c., and then, when that is done, one can turn it back into the ball with which one started. The two-year-old gets little further than that, but the four-year-old starts to model, and though his ideas and models change extremely quickly he soon becomes amazingly efficient. Another child may have chosen to bathe a rubber doll, or to wash doll's clothes, another to have a tea-party, while a group may be blowing bubbles, playing with bricks or puzzles, or begging a story from the superintendent or her helpers. The children know how to set to work ; they fetch mackintosh aprons before doing messy jobs, and they clear up when they have finished.

Then there is the outdoor play, when the children are free to run and jump, play with balls, climb on the climbing-frame, dig in the sand, watch the chickens and rabbits, and when it is warm enough paddle or bathe in the paddling pool. It is noticeable, particularly in outdoor play, how the two-year-old wanders off by himself trundling a doll's pram or horse, while the four-year-olds are seldom seen separately but have their games and adventures in groups.

Dinner-time is the one time when the entire school is assembled together without question. At other times a certain amount of choice is allowed as to whether individuals wish to join in with a group or not. The children lay their own dinner-tables and help to serve their own meals. The older children help the smaller ones and see that they have all they need. After dinner every one has a rest either out of doors or indoors with all the windows thrown open. Many of them sleep for over an hour. They get up as they wake, and after tidying themselves they find their own occupations, either indoors or out. Finally come tea and preparation for home, and it is often found that the newcomer who was unwilling to come in the morning is just as unwilling to leave at night.

It is impossible to describe all that these children do—the music, singing, and percussion band, which they love so much, the concentration with which they sit over puzzles and fit toys planned to provoke thought and to develop the co-ordination of hand and eye, the joy with which they discover the possibilities of new toys, and the consternation they feel when toys are broken. The mothers are very closely bound up in the work of the school. They are always welcome, and those who are not going out to work, frequently offer to help with mending, and those who are bring gifts or donations toward new toys. Their co-operation is sought in matters of hygiene and general training, difficulties and problems are discussed, help and advice are given to them on feeding and clothing when necessary, and they look on the nursery school as their friend. Tea-parties for mothers and children are sometimes held, and it is generally during the talks following these that one hears how greatly they value the nursery school and what it is doing for their children.

" I HAVE an idea, sometimes, that young children know perfectly what is the matter with the world, and could grow up to tell us what the trouble is, if only we could let them develop the right power of expression. But we must train ourselves, too, to cooperate with them, and to remember our dreams."

KENNETH RICHMOND.

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RESEARCH AND SCHOOL WORK

V.—SPELLING

By Dr. C. M. FLEMING, University of London Institute of Education

EXPERIMENTAL investigations into spelling have, in the last forty years, taken two main directions :

(*a*) An attempt to determine objectively which words children should be able to spell, and

(*b*) An effort to discover the most effective and economical means of helping pupils to spell the desired words with confidence and accuracy.

Both lines of inquiry have led to findings which are of value to teachers.

Study of the content of the curriculum in spelling was one of the earliest outcomes of the movement towards greater social usefulness which marked the turn of the century. It attained clear expression in the work of Ayres, who assumed that spelling practice in school should deal with the most important words, and that their selection should be determined by counting, and not by the mere opinion of the teacher. Research since 1914 has accepted these two assumptions, and has been directed to the clarifying of the issues involved.

Vocabulary studies in spelling have proceeded on lines analogous to those in the fields of reading and of speaking ; and there has been similar progress in the extent of the samplings, the selection of the sources, and the adequacy of the treatment of data.

Early investigations dealt with the vocabularies of a small number of individuals selected from a limited environment and dealing with a narrow range of subjects. Even in such circumstances, it was found that the choice of words is dependent upon the activity in which the individual is engaged. The vocabulary used in speaking differs from that employed in writing ; while neither is co-extensive with that which can be comprehended in listening or in reading. Considerable overlapping in the four vocabularies is admittedly present ; but the identity is not sufficient to justify the nineteenth-century practice of basing spelling exercises on the vocabulary of the class reading-book or upon the oral vocabulary of the teacher.

Students of spelling, therefore, from an early date turned their attention to the vocabulary used in writing. This was investigated in the first place by attempts to discover which words were most frequently used in the written transactions of ordinary life.

In this search two lines of approach were employed :

(*a*) An analysis of the words used by adults,

(*b*) A tabulation of the words found in the writing of children at different ages.

The former was expected to provide guidance as to the spelling skill which pupils would require after they had left school ; and the latter was of interest as a means of deciding upon an optimum order of teaching for the words which it seemed most important for pupils to learn.

In both types of inquiry there has been a remarkable development in the extent and reliability of the data upon which recommendations can be made.

The earliest criterion employed in the case of adult writing was that of frequency ; and the earliest material analysed was that of personal and business letters. It was soon realized, however, that it is difficult to obtain adequate samples of certain types of personal letters and of business records. Selection on the basis of mere frequency can hardly be made representative. The usefulness of words for spelling instruction is also in reality determined by other criteria than that of frequency alone. Attempts were accordingly made to evaluate words on grounds such as the universality of their use (regardless of educational level, economic status, or geographical position) their commonness in different types of writing, the severity of the social penalty attached to their misuse, their probable permanence, and the style of writing in which they most often appear. Using criteria of this kind, it was found that there is a common core of 4,000 or 5,000 words which are used as a writing vocabulary by the great majority of adults—regardless of educational level, occupation, status, sex, or geographical locality. This basic list is also, with few exceptions, duplicated in the Thorndike list of words of greatest frequency in reading material ; and it is paralleled by words found in comparable vocabulary counts in other languages. It seems, therefore, reasonable to believe that these words provide a guide as to the ultimate (minimum) spelling needs of pupils by the time they leave the ordinary school.

The question which next arises is as to the order in which these words should be learnt. Attempts have been made to answer this by an analysis of words actually used by pupils (*a*) in essays written in school, (*b*) in letters written outside of school, and (*c*) in other activities involving written expression.

From these studies it appears that there is very considerable overlapping at each age between the words used by children and by adults, and that the vocabulary needs of pupils are wider than was at first assumed from an analysis of the words used by them in formal essay-writing. The vocabulary employed by a child on a topic which arouses interest differs significantly from that used in more artificial composition exercises. It seems probable that, when training in expression becomes more meaningful, the range of words needed by pupils will become still wider. At present, however, it is possible to assess, with fair accuracy, about 3,000 words, which are of great importance in the writing of both children and adults. In addition, there are smaller groups of words used (*a*) by children chiefly and (*b*) by adults for business purposes.

Sufficient information has not yet been collected to permit differentiation of all these words according to the age at which they are most likely to be required. The experiences of pupils vary ; and development in writing vocabulary largely depends upon richness of environment and extension of interests. A certain amount of evidence is, however, available as to the words which present difficulties at various ages, and as to types of spelling errors occurring at different levels. These studies offer some guidance to teachers who wish to supplement the functional use of spelling through active interest in correct expression with sets of graded test material on which to base deliberate study of words which prove to be mis-spelled.

Studies of errors have been utilized in spelling to assist in the diagnosis of individual difficulties in a fashion similar to that of process-analysis in arithmetic. Attempts have been made to classify mistakes (*a*) according to the types of alteration made in the shape of a word and (*b*) according to the mental factors associated with its successful spelling. The first of these lines of study, while productive of much enthusiastic controversy, has remained at a somewhat subjective level, and has yielded little direct assistance to teachers whose chief concern is the helping of individual pupils. There may be a certain academic interest in learning that mistakes in ' known ' words can be arranged under headings such as : omission, anticipation, transposition, interference, substitution ; and that errors in ' unknown ' words may be classified as : alternatives, doublings, homonyms, mispronunciations, non-doublings. The correctness of the grouping is, however, open to debate ; and the allocation of the error to a particular group does not bring a teacher perceptibly nearer to the application of

(*Continued on page 382*)

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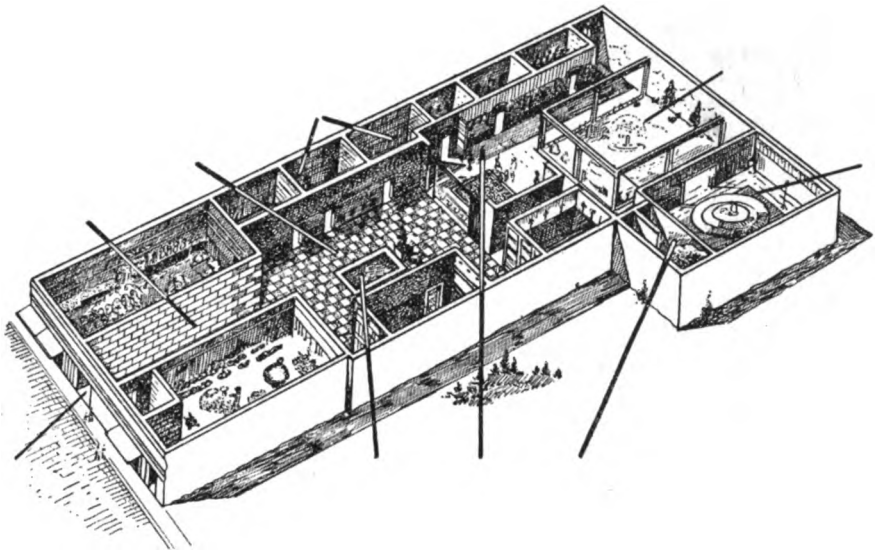

Above is a plan of a Roman house. Fill in, in their right places, the following names and put the English translation of the Latin word in brackets after it.

Impluvium (.....) Culina (.....)
Ostium (.....) Peristylium (.....)
Triclinium (.....) Atrium (.....)
Cubicula (.....) Tablinum (.....)

Vestibulum (.....)

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suitable remedial measures to the pupil whose mistake is under consideration.

The second line of approach has been somewhat more fruitful since it has brought research on the subject of spelling into line with other studies on the processes involved in learning. There is evidence, for example, that successful learning is related to span of apprehension, perception of word forms, knowledge of meaning—ability to generalize phonetic units, rote-memory and ability to write accurately; and that the rapid acquisition of skill is linked with a desire to spell and a willingness to give time to attentive practice on the specific difficulties met with by the individual learner. When the modern statistical technique of factor analysis is energetically applied to the study of spelling, it may be possible to determine with increasing accuracy the exact nature of the abilities involved.

The ability to spell is almost always measured by competence in writing. Transference from oral spelling to written spelling is, however, by no means certain. Training should therefore be given in seeing the word accurately, pronouncing it correctly, associating the sound of the syllables with their proper spelling, and writing it from memory with care and accuracy. Transcription of the word is useful in the initial stages of this process; but it is no substitute for deliberate practice in spelling the word from memory, followed by careful comparison with the correct spelling as shown in a dictionary or a reading book.

Interest in types of mistakes and investigations of the content of vocabularies of adults and children have occupied the energy of research workers in the field of spelling somewhat to the exclusion of experimental study of the factors associated with failure. There are fewer records of case-studies in spelling than in reading, arithmetic, or speech; and there has been less consideration of the relationship of spelling ability to variations in intelligence, social status, and physical or mental health.

There is, however, evidence that correlations with general intelligence are quite high, and that brighter pupils have a greater tendency to generalise. Weakness may be associated with sensory defects of the eye or the ear. Temperamental maladjustments may also be the cause of failure. Growth in ability is related to growth in experience and certain cases of mis-spellings may be interpreted in terms of hidden conflicts.

While it is difficult to prove that spelling efficiency is related to differences in the pleasant or unpleasant connotations of words, there is little doubt that spelling, like other activities of the organism, suffers from any impairment of physical or mental stability.

In the case of spelling there has been less development in the technique of testing than has occurred in the comparable subjects of reading or of arithmetic.

Spelling tests have remained at the original level of survey tests, and, while a beginning has been made in classifying errors according to weaknesses in visual or auditory analysis or in articulatory or writing accuracy, there has been little progress in the construction of diagnostic tests associated with teaching programmes. Learning in spelling is so specific in its effects that achievement in a given time cannot fairly be measured by a standardized test whose items are necessarily fixed and may or may not have been included in the range of words studied.

Spelling tests, therefore, continue to be useful as rough measures of general ability in spelling rather than as guides to the exact remedial tuition required. Information as to the practice which each pupil needs has to be obtained from an analysis of the actual errors which he makes in routine tests and in other writing activities. In most cases, pupils are more speedily helped by learning a technique for self-teaching and developing a spelling conscience than by laborious efforts on the part of the teacher to differentiate the type of imagery or discrimination in which weakness may be detected.

The aims of the modern teacher of spelling have widened from the provision of mere class-drill on words which may be mis-spelled by some member of the group to the attempt to enlist the interest of the pupil in the discovery and correction of his own spelling errors. It is no longer considered sufficient to correct mistakes after they have been made; but training is given with a view to equipping the pupil with a method of working which will enable him to study new words. An effort is also made to provide him with experiences sufficiently varied and stimulating to promote the use and understanding of a constantly increasing vocabulary. In spelling, as much as in any other subject, success is related to the insight, the skill, and the enthusiasm of the teacher.

The findings of research may be summarized as follows:

1. There is considerable reliability of evidence on the basic spelling vocabulary of 4,000 or 5,000 words most needed by adults.
2. The writing vocabulary of children is larger than has commonly been assumed.
3. It overlaps considerably with that of the writing needs of adults.
4. Vocabulary differs significantly with the interest of the topic and its suitability to the writer.
5. Study of words in which failure has occurred is a more economical method of working than indiscriminate study of words in a spelling list.
6. Individual study of words is more beneficial than class methods of learning. A relatively small number of words is responsible for most mistakes.
7. Provision for independent study is best made by the teaching of a definite method of self-tuition.
8. The original presentation of a word should be as nearly as possible in the form in which it appears in its context.
9. Marking of hard spots is more of a hindrance than a help since difficulties differ for different pupils.
10. The meaning of words should be studied in connexion with the learning of their spelling; and training in the use of a dictionary is a distinct help in accelerating success.
11. Many distributed repetitions are necessary for mastery; but learning, once achieved, is very lasting in its effects.
12. Instruction should be directed toward the development of an ardent desire to spell correctly; and incentives should be provided for the carry-over of correct spelling from spelling tests to all the written activities of the pupil.
13. Provision for self-correction and for recording of progress is of value in developing interest.
14. The formal study of spelling is best postponed until a pupil is sufficiently familiar with words to be able to analyse words into syllables—both auditory and visual. Certain studies seem to indicate that this degree of maturity is normally attained at about the mental age of 9.
15. Correlation of spelling ability with intelligence is quite high and where marked weakness occurs in pupils above 80 I.Q. special investigation should be undertaken into possible sensory defects, faulty habits of work, or personality maladjustments.

Research is still needed on the following topics:

1. Further investigations into the most important words, and more adequate samplings of the writing vocabulary of children at each age.
2. Determination of words to be taught at each age, and the suitable order of lessons within each age group.
3. Discovery of the words whose study can be omitted because they are (*a*) very easy or (*b*) learnt incidentally in other subjects.
4. Determination of the difficulty of words before and after systematic teaching of a definite type.
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THE COUNTY BADGE OR THE FOURFOLD ACHIEVEMENT

By J. M. HOGAN, Secretary of the County Badge Experimental Committee

THE County Badge training scheme contains nothing that is new. It is a practical combination of several most valuable educational ideas, each of which has been demonstrated in different spheres.

It consists of four test-groups, though it should be stressed that the emphasis is on the training, or patient effort to achieve, rather than on the test itself. The groups are (i) Physical, (ii) the Expedition, (iii) the Project, and (iv) the Service conditions.

Dual athletic standards have proved their value in many schools as a complement to games and physical training. They can be an aid to both. Before any boy or girl attempts to train he is subjected to medical examination. This determines his fitness to undertake all-round physical effort, and may also suggest training conditions or remedial exercises necessary to ensure success. All details are entered in a Record Book which becomes his personal property and in which his progress is noted. Then he begins to work toward the Standards in *all* these sections.

(i) Swimming and life-saving.
(ii) Jumping (either long jump, high jump, or pole vault).
(iii) Throwing (choice of javelin, discus, weight or cricket ball).
(iv) Running (either sprint or middle distance).
(v) Stamina (either 2-mile run or 5-mile walk).

There are modifications of the physical tests for girls.

Three age groups are catered for, Junior (12–14), Intermediate (14–16) and Senior (16+). Within each age group there are two standards. The Standard Badge conditions, it has been demonstrated, can be fulfilled by all who are not seriously defective, but not without effort and training. A medical certificate will excuse an attempt in certain sections. The Silver Badge can be won only by those with inherent physical gifts and is designed to stimulate them to a sense of real achievement.

The Expedition Training covers a wide field of activities. Map and compass work, camping, cooking, first-aid, observation, field-sketching and note-taking could all be included in the training. The final test should occupy at least twenty-four hours and should be undertaken either individually or in pairs. It may be a hiking, cycling, canoeing, riding, sailing, or mountaineering enterprise, but it should bring the boy up against the natural obstacles of country, weather and darkness. A complete log of the journey should be kept. This should be a real test of initiative and independence and should provide unforgettable experiences for which the adolescent yearns.

The Project should demand proficiency, patience, and time. It can arise out of a boy's or girl's work, out of tastes formed at school, or hobbies pursued in the family circle, the club, or Scout Troop. Unlimited variety is offered ; the construction of a piece of furniture or a fine model, the making of a map, or the playing of an instrument, the painting of pictures, or the design of costume, could all be considered as good subjects for this endeavour. The standard should demand real and sustained effort.

Group IV, termed the Service Conditions, is the most difficult to define and assess. It is essential that any scheme demanding individual achievement and enterprise should also guide the stimulated boy or girl into proper channels of service. It must finally be left to the school or organization undertaking the training to decide its own method of ensuring this.

It is the combination of these four sections that is novel and important. Many organizations offer badges to boys and girls which encourage them to follow their natural tastes and so develop their strength. The combination does more than that. *It demands that weakness must be conquered, and each conquest enables the child to defeat its own defeatism.* True self-confidence is the result when objective difficulties have been met and overcome. The value lies not in the winning of the badge but in the prolonged effort to achieve. Habits of health and hygiene, patience and determination are built up and maintained. This is more important than the improvement in resilience, decision, endurance and spring that the athletic training is designed to promote.

While in an article of this length it is impossible to give details of each section, of methods of training, or of the standards themselves, a full statement of the whole scheme is now in print. This will be forwarded to any one applying to the Secretary, County Badge Experimental Committee, Balliol College, Oxford.

SERVICE THROUGH THE BLUE TRIANGLE

SERVICE for youth and service by youth are two expressions of one idea, the importance of which is shown by the many schemes, official and unofficial, which are being advocated and tested. There is a growing feeling that ' book ' education alone does not produce a happy or fully-developed individual and that the education of the future must fit people to use leisure in doing things rather than in having them done for them.

The Board of Education have recently issued a Circular (1543) suggesting a number of practical ways in which young people can give service to their town and country, and at the same time make life more interesting for themselves. These ideas are primarily for young people between the ages of 14 and 20 as are those of the various other service schemes. The Y.W.C.A., working upon the suggestions of this Circular, has evolved ways of carrying out and supplementing them so that they can be adapted for individuals or groups of any age. The result is a scheme entitled " Service through the Blue Triangle ", in which all their members, young seniors, senior married, and mixed groups can participate.

Service has always been an integral part of the Y.W.C.A. activities and though many of the suggestions in this scheme are connected with the war effort, they are all of a nature which both develops the character of the individual and fits her to become a useful member of the community.

The Y.W.C.A. scheme is divided into three parts :

(1) What shall we do with our hands ?
(2) What shall we do with our minds ?
(3) How shall we do it ?

The first part covers a range of practical activities. It borrows freely from the Board of Education Circular (1543) and adds some points for which the Y.W.C.A. has a special concern. After the advice " Find out first from the local authorities with what jobs they most want help ", a list of suggestions is given on whom to help and how to help them. For example—for the Services and the Home Guard : washing, darning, and mending, or adopting a unit ; for the Civil Defence Services : cleaning brasses for fire brigade ; for Hospitals and Red Cross : making jig-saw puzzles ; for Food Production : collecting acorns and beechnuts for pigs and poultry ; for International Friendship : inviting people from other countries to your club, to your home, and making them really welcome.

(*Continued on page 386*)

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The second part sets out suggestions for study and action along the lines of Christian citizenship and international friendship, and endeavours to stimulate independent thinking. The question " What can we do in our jobs, in our clubs, in our towns, to build this better Britain ? " is followed by suggestions such as " Use the wireless and the newspapers in order to learn more, as well as for amusement ", and " Get to know about local government and how it works ". Discussions and debates are advocated on subjects such as " What are we fighting for ? " or " The removal of unemployment after the war ".

Part three contains practical details for working out the scheme, which includes the award of the Y.W.C.A. Service Badge—a silver metal badge with a red ' S ' in a blue triangle—when service under parts one and two has been undertaken. The badge is given after a probationary period of three months and it can be withdrawn by the local Service Badge Committee if the work is not carried through. The service may be undertaken either individually or as part of a group or team and, in order to facilitate co-operation with other existing schemes, membership of a local or county Youth Service Squad or Corps will count as equivalent service under Part One.

It is suggested that the scheme should be organized in small groups under a leader and that these groups should use their own initiative in working out plans. Wherever possible the scheme should be a joint one for girls and boys.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

SIR,—In your July number, a correspondent laments that to-day he can find no writers of the calibre of Carlyle and Ruskin, Macaulay, Matthew Arnold, and Browning—men who inspired him in his youth, forty years ago. They had all ceased writing twelve years before, Macaulay forty-two years before, so that they were hardly contemporary to Mr. Kennard Davis, who happily is still schoolmastering to-day. He asks where are their successors ; writers who can convince the young that literature deals with life, who can solve some of our problems and give to the young an ampler vision of the world. He concludes that there are none such living to-day. So desperate is he that he is forced to the conclusion that Cicero, Virgil, and Tacitus, and still more Aeschylus and Plato are far more alive than any of our modern writers. Now I am convinced that both his theses are wrong ; that the problems of to-day cannot really be solved by appeals to the classics, though they have, of course, a message for our time ; and that there are many first-rate writers still alive or only recently dead, who can speak to youth with no uncertain sound.

What surprises me is the fact that chief guests on speech days, in taking refuge from the present, so often commend the classics to their audiences of parents and boys and girls, but hardly ever suggest that the Bible answers most if not all of our personal and world problems, and that the Authorized Version is probably the finest piece of literature in the world. As your correspondent asks for a restatement of the fundamental truths on which our civilization is based, it is all the more surprising that he omits all reference to the Bible.

It has often been suggested that for the average man the real ' heritage of classical literature ' could equally well be obtained in translations ; and, if opponents of this notion say that there are few really first-class translations extant, it is a terrible reproach on classical students who have been translating from Greek and Latin for about four hundred years. Why must one read the *Georgics* in the original in order to lead the simple life ? Would not a year's subscription to Robertson Scott's *Countryman* do as well ?

But my real contention with your correspondent is concerned with his suggestion that there are no writers to-day who can speak to youth. If you take Frank Swinnerton's *The Georgian Literary Scene*, published in Everyman's Library, and pick, almost at random, books and authors mentioned there, a philosophy of life will soon be forthcoming. Let a youngster read a book or two by Wells and Shaw, Belloc and Barrie, Bennett and Galsworthy, Brett-Young and Walpole as a start and discover their message. Take *Tono-Bungay* and *Joan and Peter*, *You Never Can Tell* and *Major Barbara*, *The Path to Rome* and *Dear Brutus*, *The Old Wives' Tale* and *The Forsyte Saga*, *The Portrait of Claire* and the *Herries Chronicles* ; and see whether some pattern of life, some solution of some of our problems does not emerge. True, the answer to youth's queries to-day may not be quite the same as we got forty years ago, but who could expect it ? After all, forty years back takes us perilously near the revolutionary Eighteen-nineties, so admirably depicted in Holbrook Jackson's ' Penguin ' of that name. In my list, I have quite omitted Joseph Conrad, George Moore, Alice Meynell, T. E. Lawrence, and John Buchan, all of whom make a big appeal to many only just out of their teens. What about the nest of singing-birds tended by Sir Edward Marsh in *Georgian Poetry* ; what about Virginia Woolf, Rose Macaulay, Aldous Huxley, E. M. Forster, C. E. Montague ? Have they no plan of life or inspiration ? What of Thomas Hardy, Robert Bridges, John Masefield, W. H. Davies ? Surely this casual list of writers suggests that young folk have a wonderful choice of literary guides of yesterday and to-day who can give them an ampler vision of the world. It is a curious commentary on this discussion that a question set in the recent Joint Board examination emphasizes the notion that imaginative literature may well be used for the purpose of social criticism and social reform.

Your correspondent may still suggest that too many of the writers mentioned above are novelists ; but I would say that much of our inspiration to-day comes from novel writers. If historians are needed, H. A. L. Fisher, G. M. Trevelyan, and Ramsay Muir can hold their own in any company ; while the Prime Minister's life of his great ancestor, John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, is as inspiring a piece of historical writing as one could find in any age.

Perhaps the secret of the problem is that the relative position of writer and reader has altered in the last forty years. As Oliver Onions points out in *Little Devil Doubt*, so aptly quoted by Frank Swinnerton, " To-day, writers and painters no longer speak from Sinai-clouds. Rather from the pavement-edge, packed closer than the vendors of penny toys ".

NORMAN G. BRETT-JAMES.

St. George's School,
Harpenden.

SIR,—A direct answer to Mr. Kennard Davis is possible if not entirely satisfactory. There is no lack of successors to the Victorian moralists on whom he was nourished ; not only Shaw and Wells—neither by any means so outmoded as current literary cant would suggest—but such critics and interpreters of our present way of life as Julian Huxley, Lewis Mumford, J. B. S. Haldane, J. M. Keynes, H. N. Brailsford, G. S. Crowther—to name only established reputations ; these, I have found, interest sixth-formers of all types and lead them on to stiffer work. Further, in such a series as the ' Pelicans ' we can continually test new theories and approaches—C. H. Waddington's, for example, in *The Scientific Attitude*.

If it is objected that these writers are not stylists, that they lack the literary graces of a Macaulay or Ruskin, I

(*Continued on page* 388)

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would reply (1) that literary grace is itself a suspect quality nowadays and (2) that a more imaginative approach to contemporary problems is readily available in such plays as *F9*, *Murder in the Cathedral*, or *Thunder Rock*. (Mr. Kennard Davis cannot be unaware that the two modern works he quotes are unrepresentative of their authors' present style and thought.)

Still, a better answer might well be that it is unreasonable to expect a new edition of the Victorians. They were original: so are the best writers of to-day. Strachey and Maurois in biography, Woolf and Hemingway in fiction, represent a contemporary mode which makes a quick natural appeal to intelligent youngsters. Through them comes the best imaginative approach to contemporary life. Nor should the new technique in poetry be despised as a method of fixing attention; we are living in a technical age and the innovations, in rhyme, rhythm and diction, of Hopkins, Owen, MacNeice and others, are often a useful and attractive avenue.

But, if an English master is mainly concerned with a solid approach to the discussion and comprehension of our present society, he must be prepared to face some awkward work and contentious books—Marx and *Mein Kampf* among others. And this is where Mr. Davis's reversion to Latin and Greek can be so dangerous. It is all too easy to see the analogy between Antigone and Niemöller, or to appreciate the Georgic landscape; but for the real problems of to-day, rural and social, you need such help as Stapledon and Bernel can offer: not leisurely discussion of abstract ideas but keen and professional analysis of practical difficulties. Surely the fate of the League is warning enough that mere liberalism will not do.

My own difficulties in sixth-form English are first, to choose between the many stimulating books now available, often at nominal prices, and secondly to keep my patience when faced by such a syllabus as that of the Oxford and Cambridge Higher School Certificate, which ignores modern literature and will not even allow an eclectic choice of the past.

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Mount Pleasant, Birkenhead.

THE SCHOOLMASTER IN THE ARMY

SIR,—The announcement of the revised Schedule of Reserved Occupations, which raises the reserved age for teachers from 30 to 35, prompts me to reopen the question of the Army and Education. A further number of schoolmasters will this month be drafted into the services, and as professional men with much training and experience behind them it is pertinent to inquire in what ways their qualifications can best be used, and above all, whether or not they have a unique contribution to offer. So far as the Army is concerned, the great majority will, no doubt, after a period in the ranks, take a commission. The choice of a branch in which to serve will be very much easier for the specialists in those subjects which in one way or another are harnessed to the war effort. Teachers of mathematics and science have already been listed for special duties by the War Office and will probably find congenial work with the Royal Artillery and Royal Engineers. A branch of the former, the Ordnance Survey Corps, might well appeal to the geographer. The biologist and bacteriologist can offer his expert services for the welfare of the men through the work of the Field Hygiene Section. The specialist in languages will find an opening for his knowledge in the Intelligence Corps and Field Security Police. The teacher of physical training can continue his work in the Army where indeed he will find up-to-date equipment and a scientific approach to the subject.

But the Army will seek out these men not because they are professionals—schoolmasters—but because they are specialists. In other words, it is their knowledge of a special subject which is of value, rather than their professional experience as teachers. Has pedagogy itself, then, no unique contribution to offer? I think it has. War has become a dread and complicated science calling for the most widespread technology, but men still count for more than material, training for more than personal bravery, and morale for more than mere physical fitness. In whatever arm a man takes a commission his success will depend on his qualities of leadership. He must know his task (and General Wavell has emphasized that, so far as tactics are concerned, this is mainly a matter of common sense), but he must also know how to handle his men and how to train them. Both their lives and his own may well rest on his ability as a practical psychologist and as a teacher. Psychology will help the officer to be just, to gain respect and to get the most from his men. Pedagogy will enable him to teach them in a way which will give them added confidence, and much deeper understanding of the task in hand, thus making them so much more successful as a fighting unit. These are arts which can be acquired, but are rarely fully developed, without study and experience. So the schoolmaster who puts soldiering first still has need of his professional training and experience. Not only will he be a platoon commander, but he will also have to be at all times an instructor.

The really ardent and successful teacher may, however, feel that he can render greater service in work more directly concerned with his calling and will remain primarily a teacher and only secondarily a soldier. In this war, more than any other, he need not be ashamed to seek work which will call for teaching ability above all else. There is no need to stress that the risks of war are to-day so widespread that the instructors at a depôt are as much a likely target for enemy bombers as the men on the beaches. Moreover, the preparation of a new world is a task of paramount importance; one which depends on each individual's outlook, and one which cannot be left to take care of itself after victory is won. There are opportunities, then, for the teacher to give sterling service either as an instructor in military matters, or as an educator determined to enlighten this great cross-section of the population that makes up our army, and so produce that public opinion based on knowledge and morality which alone will produce a better world.

If the schoolmaster proves his military worth during his period in the ranks, then his special qualifications would be of great service in an Officer Cadet Training Unit. Indeed, the ideal staff in such a unit would consist first of men on the retired list whose long and varied experience is still of great value on practically any military subject; secondly, of men who have fought in campaigns of the present war but are no longer fit for active service; and thirdly, of the teacher-soldier. The last could place his knowledge of methodology at the service of lecturers by suggesting methods that might be adopted for increasing the value of all lectures and for measuring their results. Secondly, he could be personally responsible for such academic subjects as organization and administration, military law and perhaps map reading. Then he would prove in a practical way how much importance is attached to good teaching while at the same time capturing interest and attention for those routine subjects from many who are apt to regard them as abstruse or boring. Finally, if only the method of recruitment of officers was more expeditious and if only elementary weapon training was omitted from the syllabus, there would be ample opportunity for a course on pedagogy and psychology. It is the custom at some O.C.T.U's. for a member of the Army Educational Corps to give a lecture to cadets on the principles of teaching, but a single lecture, however brilliant, cannot be expected to achieve much. There is a pressing need for every commander to know at least the principles of these subjects and to have the chance of putting them into practice. If the syllabus was recast this would be practicable.

(*Continued on page* 390)

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Finally, the cream of the teaching profession should surely be used by the Army Educational Corps. In a previous letter I criticized the scheme of the Army Council for War-time Education not only because it will fail to achieve its limited object of providing educational facilities for the troops, but also because it is allowing to slip by a unique opportunity for developing an ambitious programme which would benefit the ordinary private as a soldier, a citizen, and an individual. The Army Council does indeed recognize the fact that the soldier will be a more efficient unit not only if he is saved from boredom but also if his range of non-military interests is increased and his daily life given a richer content. Spirit and morale are in the long run more important than numbers, and the key to that morale is an active knowledge and love of what is defended. Can we improve the morale of our troops? Conversation in a barrack-room might indeed shock a casual bystander. Among the majority there is no real loyalty to Christianity which is the bedrock of our cause, nor any great appreciation of those liberties which we seek to preserve. Indeed, smug self-righteousness and empty slogans seem to sap away our mental awareness. In place of a rational determination to build a better world by a victory over ourselves, there is rather a feeling of helplessness, even of discontent, that the individual should find himself caught in the vortex of events. After some months in the ranks I know these men to be of good heart, and I have no doubt that when the time comes they will acquit themselves with as much courage and unfailing humour as those before them have done; but there is not that *élan* which might be expected of crusaders.

Again, quite apart from his immediate duty, the ordinary soldier needs help to develop to the full his capabilities. Without a lead, he has little idea how to employ his leisure time profitably or even in a manner satisfying to himself. Occasionally there is a visit to a cinema or local pub. On most evenings, however, he is to be found in the barrack-room idly turning the pages of an illustrated magazine or exchanging chaff in desultory fashion with companions, usually on the subject of sex which for many attains the proportions of an obsession. The Army is not primarily to blame. These men have never had the opportunity of true education. The school left them without interests, without any love for Christianity, without the means of improving themselves, but a wonderful chance is now offered to give fuller meaning to these men's lives and to counteract the influences which at present they are not equipped to resist.

In conclusion, at a time when we seem to live from day to day, it is even more necessary than ever to take the long view. Education in its widest and truest sense is the foundation stone of a New Order: for true peace is a personal attribute. And we have never fully accepted Plato's contention that virile citizenship is dependent on a sound educational system. However, we receive the education we ask for and to regenerate our world we must create a demand for reform. Adult Education is too limited in scope at present but it will be given a new meaning after the war if the ranks of the Army, drawn from all classes and walks of life, are given an insight into the value of study and a true sense of proportion. What may not be the result for the well-being of our democracy of this taste for education in its all-embracing sense, of training for citizenship! If I may echo the reply of your Army correspondent in March, there is indeed a very strong case for making the Unit Education Officer a full-time specialist instead of a part-time amateur, providing him with assistants and allowing him to carry out an interesting educational programme for all in parade hours. And that case is not met by arguments of lack of time or money, for we shall in this way be preparing to win the peace in deed as well as in word, while fighting the war, and fighting it with increased efficiency.

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ORCHESTRAL BROADCASTS FOR SCHOOLS

SIR,—In her "Plea for Music in Secondary Schools", Miss D. N. Blasdale mentions wireless as a means of bringing orchestral music within the reach of all secondary school pupils. May I amplify this suggestion by drawing attention to the forthcoming series of weekly orchestral concert broadcasts for schools, which will begin at 2.40 p.m. on Friday, September 26?

This series should be of particular interest to secondary schools. It will include, during the autumn term, five half-hour concerts given by orchestras of the B.B.C. and presented with a running commentary by Dr. Reginald Jacques, Dr. Thomas Armstrong, Mr. Ronald Biggs, Mr. Herbert Murrill, and Dr. Malcolm Sargent. On the two Fridays preceding each orchestral concert (except the last) there will be twenty-minute illustrated talks on the music to be heard at the next concert. In the course of these introductory broadcasts orchestral instruments will be heard singly and in combination, and listeners will be given opportunities to memorize important themes by singing and tapping.

Among the works that will be performed in the orchestral programmes during the autumn term are: the Overtures to "William Tell" and "The Magic Flute"; movements from Beethoven's Fifth and Haydn's "Surprise" Symphonies; the first movement of Mendelssohn's Violin Concerto; and parts of Bizet's "Carmen".

Full particulars of this and other series of music broadcasts for schools may be obtained from: The Secretary, Central Council for School Broadcasting, Bedford College for Women, Regent's Park, London, N.W. 1.

R. C. STEELE,
Senior Education Assistant,
Central Council for School Broadcasting.

A 'SPRINGBOARD'

SIR,—I notice in the August *Journal* your criticism of Prime Ministers who treat the presidency of the Board of Education as if it were to be held only till something better could be found for the holder. Before President or Board existed there was similar criticism about the vice-presidency of the Education Department. As a specimen I append an extract from a paper advocating the creation of a Minister of Education which I read in April, 1887, at the Portsmouth conference of the N.U.E.T. (the Union had not then shed the "Elementary").

"Important as are the duties of the Vice-President his office stands very low in the estimation of both political parties. It is one of the last to be filled when a new government is forming and seems to be regarded by Prime Ministers as essentially the office wherein an untried man can, with least danger, serve an apprenticeship in state-craft. If he fails it is only children and teachers and such inferior creatures who will suffer; if he succeeds he is promoted at the earliest opportunity to some more important post, such as the superintendence of railway fares and continuous brakes or of the police and the common hangman.

"Of the thirteen persons who have been Vice-Presidents how many were *known* before appointment to have any fitness for their work? At most but three. And how many, when they took office at any future time, went back to the Education Department? Only one, Sir Henry Holland, and he was translated as soon as possible. Mr. Forster, when Vice-President, helped to ensure the greatness of England by the passing of a measure which will be gratefully remembered as long as that greatness lasts, yet, when his party was next in power, he was rewarded by being sent to Ireland. Mr. Mundella . . . was promoted to the Board of Trade. Does not this prove that Prime Ministers look upon the Vice-Presidency as amongst the lowest offices in their gift and that they have not yet realized the magnitude and importance of its duties or the momentous issues dependent upon the performance of them?"

Brynhyfryd, DAVID SALMON.
Narberth, Pem.

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Mr Basil Blackwell regrets that owing to the calling-up of staff for Military service it is not possible this year to issue the customary clearance list of the large stocks of second-hand School Text Books held at Broad Street.

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EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

U.S.A.

THE importance of a thorough understanding between America and ourselves has already been recognized by the institution of a series of courses on America for English school teachers, the first of which was opened in London by the United States Ambassador in July. Hence it is of interest to gather American views on problems which both nations are confronting at the present time, *e.g.* that of school religious training, to which *The Phi Delta Kappan* devotes an article. This gives an account of a meeting held at the University of Pennsylvania, at which some 800 educationists were present. There is a movement, which " is sweeping the country like wildfire ", to introduce some form of religious training in the public schools. The factors to be considered are that the country has always been committed to the separation of church and state ; at the same time the basic roots of democracy spring from the deep traditions of a religious heritage. Church and state have had their particular provinces to cultivate, and it was taken for granted that the school was imparting secular education while the church was inculcating religious ideals.

But the church has not done an effective job. " A generation has grown up which is hardly conscious of the traditions of religion, poorly informed in the contents of the Bible, little endowed with profound convictions in the belief of God, and little appreciative of the ethical ideals which should activate life and society ". The need for something to be done has become more acute because of the anti-religious propaganda emanating from Fascist, Nazi and Communist countries.

Granted that a sounder religious training should be given, certain questions must be answered. Should the schools introduce formal religious training ? If so, who will give it ? Should some time during school hours be allowed for children to visit their respective churches for religious instruction ?

If instruction is given in school, the cardinal question is who will impart it. To suggest that clergymen should come in and give it would involve the dangerous issue of church and state. If the teacher is to give it, the question is raised whether she is qualified or prepared to do so. (The feminine pronoun is suggestive to English ears.)

The objection to the " released time " proposal is that it would accentuate religious differences rather than emphasize common ideals. Moreover, there might be implied ostracism of pupils who preferred to remain at school. Again, one hour a week is insufficient for adequate training.

To reduce school hours altogether in order to provide time for outside instruction might involve reduction of teachers' salaries.

Thus these three proposals all have objectionable characteristics. The solution might be found in closer co-operation between church and school. The Protestant Church has been planning in recent years to extend its Sunday School organization to include a week-day school, giving afternoon religious instruction. Better support for this from educationists would be helpful. Jewish people have evolved a similar means of religious instruction in week-day schools which children attend for an average of six hours a week.

The writer's conclusion then is, put the responsibility of religious education upon the agency where it belongs, namely the church, but have the school cooperate with it by encouraging the growth of the church week-day school.

IN the same issue (May) particulars about the status of the teacher in the United States are given as compiled by the National Education Association. It appears that between 1870 and 1940 the proportion of teachers in the population has risen from 1 in 192 to 1 in 138. Of this number, 70 per cent teach in kindergartens and elementary schools. In 1870, men formed 39 per cent of the teachers : now they form 21 per cent. The typical public school teacher is a relatively young, unmarried woman and is recruited from the middle economic level of American life. The trend is toward women teachers marrying and remaining in the profession. In elementary schools, one teacher in three can claim college graduation or its equivalent. In senior high schools, the proportion is nine out of ten. The average class-room teacher has had about ten years' experience—seventeen years if in an urban school. One elementary teacher in every five changes his position annually—but only one in twenty in cities above 100,000 in population. The average salary of all class-room teachers is about $1360 a year ; that of urban teachers $1900 and that of rural teachers $830. Public school teaching ranks eleventh in a group of sixteen occupations, according to estimated average earnings. Teachers spend about thirty hours a week in actual teaching and about ten hours a week in out-of-school activities. Twenty-nine states have tenure provisions ; nineteen have not. One quarter of the teachers can look forward to no retirement or disability security whatever. Fifty per cent are protected by actuarily sound retirement plans. Administrators and school physicians agree that lack of mental or emotional poise is the prime detriment to successful teaching. Inability to make necessary social adjustments is second ; and physical ill-health, third.

Between 1935 and 1939, 319 men teachers in West Virginia resigned their positions, some of them giving the following reasons : insufficient salary, 95 ; insecurity of tenure, 46 ; political influence, 31 ; no retirement insurance, 29 ; undesirable location, 13 ; shortened school term, 13 ; living expenses too high, 11 ; accepted administrative position, 11 ; chance for future betterment poor, 9 ; dislike for the work, 7 ; better job available, 7 ; jobless summers, 5 ; graduate work, 6 ; teaching in a college, 5 ; better position in school of another state, 4 ; availability of public elective office, 2. All these now command greater salaries than they did when teaching in West Virginia, the average yearly increase being $822. S. B. L.

THE U.S. army is not only drafting millions of men into its ranks but a campaign is also carried on to obtain voluntary recruits. The ' draftees ' march up and down the parade ground for one year, then they return to civil life. The enlisted men remain three years, and these are the men on whom Uncle Sam is lavishing a schooling and education.

A man may follow any course he desires, and the army tries to instil into him the importance of learning a profession which will be useful to him when he leaves the army.

Recently Lieutenant Jere Ivers said that the army had installed the finest equipment in laboratories and for technical schools, and that the courses given would cost a civilian thousands of dollars.

As an enlisted man is in the army for at least three years, his tactical training and hardening for a military emergency need not be hurried. The schooling comes first, therefore, and men attend classes in their subjects every day as if they were in college. The hardening process is fitted in with the curriculum. No man has to finish his course by a certain time ; he is free to take his time and study in the way he thinks best.

There is great call for educated men at the moment to become non-commissioned and commissioned officers. If a man enters the army with this in mind he must be single, between the ages of 20 and 28. College seniors are accepted within ninety days. Degrees are necessary, however. The candidate must be either a B.A., B.Sc., or hold some engineering degree. (Continued on page 394) S. H. K.

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FRANCE

THE gradual eclipse of the aged Marshal from public affairs in Vichy is almost complete. Admiral Darlan has the reins and he intends to keep hold of them. Pétain, therefore, has at last decided to take a special interest in the youth of the country.

The *Journal des Débats* makes a special note of this in one article. It writes: " And all of a sudden the Marshal turns to the youth of the country to look after its moral and physical health so that the France of to-morrow will resemble nothing of the France of to-day.

" Henceforth it is a unanimous France which turns with its soul to the sublime figure of the one who has offered himself to the glorification and piety of young France. Peguy said that ' a young man is nearly always a gentleman '. This is true provided that his noblest sentiments are provoked, etc."

A glance through the French press since Pétain took over this job shows that education seems to have disappeared altogether. Now Vichy is trying to make every French boy a *Chevalier Bayard*. It is obvious that the plan for education is still very undecided and unsatisfactory. It is a year now since the Armistice, and several schemes have been put into operation—most of them borrowed from Germany. The French people did not like them, would have none of them. The serious papers, like *Figaro* and *Le Temps*, warned the Government they were making a mistake. Vichy was concerned with one thing, avoiding any educational system which resembled that of the Third Republic.

Writing in *La France Libre* this month, Monsieur Denis Saurat of the French Institute of Great Britain said: " The Third Republic organized a system of teaching which will remain one of her greatest achievements; which, in some ways, was the best in the world even though it had some faults ".

All this Vichy wants to abandon and as a last resort it sets up a " sublime figure," to use the words of the *Journal des Débats*, by which all youth is to be judged—an old man whose own judgment has been seriously impaired by the passage of time. S. H. K.

ITALY

IT is reliably reported that students rioted in front of the Registrar's office of Rome University to protest against the advanced date of examinations. Their grievance was that if the date were advanced they would not have sufficient time to study, and if the date were kept then the standard should be reduced.

It is understood that the authorities advanced the date so as to be able to call the young men into the army. Several arrests were made, and the students were told that the examinations would be held on the arranged date.

S. H. K.

JAPAN

THE Welfare Ministry which looks after education has decided to recast child training in order to bring it closer to the new Japanese conception. Its plan, however, has a flavour rather more German than Japanese. Here it is:

1. Thorough inculcation of the national foundation spirit and its historic mission in the present days. (This is an example of Japanese indirectness and means strict nationalism in all schools.)
2. Thorough inculcation of Imperial Rescript for Fixation of the National Foundation; cognizance of the situation and observance of various national events; practical education to encourage donations and comfort-giving to the army and police.
3. Cultivation of disinterested spirit by frequent *enforcement of mass training*, and popular training in emergency life.
4. Preservation of peace and order through enforcement of ethical training.
5. Reinforcement of practical education.

Considering the importance of scientific education, practical education in agriculture, industry, and commerce is to be encouraged, so that through this the national service spirit may be inculcated.

6. Thorough enlightenment about labour service.

Labour-service education is necessary not only as a productive measure but also as education for fostering genuine human characters. Though this communal spirit and service may be enhanced.

7. Physical Training.

Considering the importance of the elevation of people's physique, which forms the basis of disinterested service and service in each social post, both school drilling and sports are to be encouraged for cultivation of an *indomitable* spirit according to the adage *mens sana in corpore sano*.

8. Practical guidance should be respected in school education. S. H. K.

NEW MEDIA

FILM EXHIBITION AT HALIFAX

By FRANK HAIGH, Chief Librarian, Halifax

IT was through the Ministry of Information that the exhibition of films at Halifax was made possible. The Ministry lent everything necessary; the library had merely to provide a room and an operator. The films were certainly not specially intended for children, but the young folk came nevertheless—in great numbers. Their only invitation was a small notice in the Junior Library. The first night very few turned up, but the second recorded a better attendance, and on the third night the attendant had to marshal the youngsters into a queue one hour and a half before opening time—and then turn some away.

The films were exhibited on alternate weeks, the same film being shown nightly for one week. The attendances varied, the weather taking on a period of snow-storms, and circumstances that we are not allowed to mention making a considerable difference.

The audiences, like the attendances, varied. Probably 25 per cent could be definitely classed as adults. Of the remainder, perhaps a third might be considered adolescent, and generally fell into two groups. The first consisted largely of boys who attended as serious students of the different pictures and the subjects they portrayed. These boys were generally fairly well dressed and in most cases were pupils of the higher schools. There were other young adults, too, who seemed equally serious, and they were obviously working boys and girls. Then, of course, there was the usual sprinkling of those who were " mating ", and probably the auspices and conditions under which they did so were better than many. It is possible that the increased price of the picture-houses and other luxuries, for example, cigarettes, may have made the public library cinema, with its free admission, a boon to those young people.

It was the remainder of the audience, however, that provided the most interesting study. It was composed of the young children from the streets in the vicinity. It is not easy to describe the kind of homes these youngsters came from. They were not the poorest of the poor, and their homes were not slum dwellings by any means. Yet they were poor, or at least had nothing to throw away, the parents being of necessity very hard-working. Added to these, must be included those from homes which in later-Victorian and Edwardian days were considered rather better-class, but now, alas, turned into flats, and unfortunately not attracting the best tenants.

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Opening of Session, 1941-42, Tuesday, October 7, 1941

Preliminary Examinations begin Sept. 4 and March 23. Entries due Aug. 6 and Feb. 6.
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The University, St. Andrews. *July*, 1941. ANDREW BENNETT, *Secretary*.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN WAR-TIME

DANCE and DRAMA

From *The Observer*, April 20, 1941: "Women students who are taking vocational courses will not be required to give up their studies; students who have not taken up courses yet, but who intend to do so, will be allowed to proceed."

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UNIVERSITY COLLEGE LONDON

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FACULTIES OF ARTS AND SCIENCE (including 1st M.B. students)	Aberystwyth and Bangor
FACULTY OF ENGINEERING	Swansea
FACULTY OF LAWS	Cambridge
FACULTY OF MEDICAL SCIENCES	Leatherhead
BARTLETT SCHOOL OF ARCHITECTURE and Department of Town Planning	Cambridge
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These children, whatever they were, and wherever they came from, attended regularly. Some of them became possessive. Just as their elders sometimes habitually book their seats at a commercial cinema, so these youngsters tended to monopolize, and could be relied upon to be in attendance on certain evenings. That they enjoyed the show goes without saying. They clapped and whistled when they shouldn't have done, and sang the choruses of the songs given from the ' talkie '.

It seemed remarkable that the children could appreciate with such enjoyment some of the exhibitions. On one occasion a group of boys and girls—probably no more than ten years of age—were questioned as to their interest. It perhaps ought to be said that each show consisted of about six different pictures.

" Do you like these films ? " was asked.

" Rather. They are better than the —— " (the name of a commercial picture-house).

" Which do you like best ? "

" The one on coal-mining. We are learning about it at school." This reply was from a little girl.

The coal-mining film was certainly intended for adults, but its appeal was evidently not confined to older people. This opened up a line for profitable thought. It might be that all things of a good quality reach young minds much more than is generally thought. A parallel would seem to be in several autobiographies where, writing of their boyhood days, authors have told of reading their fathers' books with relish.

It appeared to be a great event when, on one occasion, a few of the children were allowed to stay behind and watch the rewinding of the reel. Greater still it was when no objection was raised to their being spectators to a few minor repairs to the film and the changing of one or two valves in the projector. Then it was that one little boy, obviously from a very poor home, approached the librarian, and placing his right hand across his breast, offered his left hand to shake, simply saying " Thank you ". Mercifully, the librarian remembered those days before he was supposed to be " high-brow " when in " blood-and-thunders " he recollected secret societies which had similar signs of membership. Therefore, he gravely accepted the boy's left hand, and the honour it was intended to confer. This incident is introduced to show the friendliness of the audience.

After practically six months it is possible to visualize the possibilities of such exhibitions. Given a suitable room, or, better still, a small building set apart for the purpose, great good might be done. There are many good films specially for children, and there is no need whatever to pander to their tastes to secure a regular attendance. So long as a film is good, informing without obviously " improving ", there need be no fear of an audience.

At any time this would be valuable work, but particularly during these nights of black-out would it meet a great social need. The educational advantages would be no less than the social. A few hundred pounds spent here and there by public authorities on the necessary equipment would be worth while, and result in improved citizenship.

AN EDUCATIONAL FILM CAMPAIGN

At the beginning of 1940 the British Film Institute and the Board of Education collaborated in a campaign to ascertain the present position of the school cinema and the possibilities of extension of the use of films in schools. Four experienced teachers were seconded for the purpose and they toured most of the country. Their report has just been incorporated in a pamphlet published by the Film Institute at 1s.

The Board circularized local education authorities and during the campaign 224 directors were visited, 83 demonstrations were given to education authorities and teachers, 17 to training and technical colleges, and 174 demonstrations in class-room technique were given.

The conclusions may be regarded in some instances as startling, for some directors of education still have little or no knowledge of the possibilities of the medium and of the sources from which information may be obtained. This has resulted in little use being made of projectors and of little encouragement being given to enthusiastic teachers in their areas. Many schools have purchased projectors without adequate preparation among the staff, with the result that after a bitter experience with unsuitable films the projector has been discarded and more harm than good has resulted.

The main conclusion would appear to be the necessity for spreading knowledge which is unbiassed and advice which is practical. The Film Institute already exists for this purpose ; but, to make its influence felt the more widely and effectively, it is proposed that a permanent official, a teacher, be appointed with the duty of travelling all over the country to advise individuals and authorities. The subjects to be covered will be projectors, screens, and films. As a corollary to this is what the report calls the *sine qua non* of the effective use of the cinema in schools—the establishment of educational film libraries in various provincial centres. Some may regard the latter as of the greater moment, but the spade-work of the representative will do much to achieve that end.

The report makes a strong claim for the increase of the number of projectors in Junior Schools, where visual appeal is naturally at its strongest, and in country and slum schools, where there is an urgent need for the widening of the children's horizons.

The report makes much of the criticisms received about film supply ; and, while it is difficult to allocate blame here, a great service has been done by bringing these grievances to light. The disappointment experienced by many teachers emphasizes the need for cheap, expert criticisms of educational films as are available in Scotland, and it is suggested that the Educational Films Section of the Monthly Film Bulletin be published separately.

It is surprising to find the section on " Film Appreciation " so very thin. It contains generalizations and platitudes which would not stand up to practical experience. It is the feeblest section of the report.

There follows a succinct outline of technical problems and, finally, recommendations among which, in addition to those already given, are : " That the Board of Education should consider the rapid extension of the use of school projectors as a national necessity and should give authorities encouragement to purchase apparatus.

" That in view of the present inadequate stock and limited range of teaching films, the Government should consider every possible means of encouraging further production and of providing copies of existing good quality films.

" That the Board of Education should :

" (*a*) Urge Training Colleges to include projection technique in their curriculum.

" (*b*) Urge Local Education Authorities to organize Refresher Courses for teachers in projection technique. These could be handled through the Teachers' Film Associations ".

It is to be hoped that the incidence of war will not defer the putting into operation without delay of the main points of this report.

R. S. MILES.

National Film Library.—Details of sixty-two films are contained in the new catalogue of films available in the Loan Section of the National Film Library which has just been published by the British Film Institute. They have been selected from the archives of the National Film Library and illustrate the early history and development of the cinema. They include copies of the short primitive films shown in 1896 and films of the Boer War ; early one-reel comedies and dramas ; and copies of such famous

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THE NEW OXFORD GEOGRAPHIES

By JASPER H. STEMBRIDGE

Mr. Stembridge's general text-book, *The World* (6s.), published in 1939, is now in wide use at home and abroad. The first book of the same author's graded series for pupils in Secondary Schools, THE NEW OXFORD GEOGRAPHIES, already announced, but unavoidably delayed by war conditions, will be published on September 4. Each volume is fully illustrated with maps and photographs in the style of *The World*.

In planning this new series Mr. Stembridge has worked very closely with the teachers in the schools and over one hundred and fifty Syllabuses have been studied. It is hoped that the Books with the alternative arrangements given in the Sections and other parts will meet all needs. The scheme is as follows :

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We should be glad to keep teachers informed of the progress of this series

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feature films of other countries as *The Cabinet of Dr. Caligari* and *Battleship Potemkin*. In addition, there are composite films illustrating particular developments such as the history of the cartoon film or of the actuality film, and short extracts from the longer films are made available for lecturers and students who wish to study them in detail. This is the first catalogue of this kind which has been published in this country and it opens up an entirely new field in education. It will therefore be of interest not only to the schools of the country but also to education officers in the Services. The National Film Library Committee and the Governors of the British Film Institute have made this collection available in order to meet the growing demand everywhere for material which could be used in teaching film appreciation and in developing intelligent criticism amongst the 23,000,000 children, adolescents and adults who go to the cinema regularly each week. The catalogue is provided with extensive notes both on each film and on the general development of the art of the cinema which will be invaluable to all concerned with this subject.

TOPICS AND EVENTS

RABINDRANATH TAGORE

EDUCATIONISTS throughout the world will mourn the death of this great Indian poet, novelist, and philosopher. Not least among Sir Rabindranath Tagore's many activities was the founding in 1901 of his education centre at Santineketan, near Calcutta. Through its medium he sought to revive the ideals of the simple life led by the early Aryan settlers among the forests of the Ganges valley, and to infuse into the Western system of education an understanding and appreciation of Indian philosophy and culture. Tagore's greatness received wide recognition. In 1913 he was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature, and in 1915 a knighthood was conferred upon him. In August, 1940, at a special Convocation at Oxford University, held at his village home, he received the degree of Doctor of Letters *honoris causa*.

THE EXODUS OF THE CHILD

" THE SCHOOLS CARRY ON ! "

A PICTORIAL history of the greatest transfer of population ever undertaken in this country has been issued by the Ministry of Information on behalf of the Board of Education under the title " The Schools in War-time ".

The great migration from the evacuation to the reception areas started with machine-like precision on September 1, two days before the declaration of war. It involved the transfer of 1,500,000, of whom over 750,000 were children travelling in school parties with teachers and helpers, and the task was accomplished smoothly in three days—a magnificent tribute to railway and road transport systems.

The scheme was devised to meet a sudden air attack, and it was not to be expected that the educational end of the migration would be in perfect order. It was said that education was the first casualty of the war, but teachers, inspectors, and education officers worked night and day to retrieve the position, and some of the fruits of their labours are to be seen in the delightful set of photographs in the record. These show how the children of the town found health and happiness in a strange new world in the country ; how the evacuees adapted themselves to the altered conditions ; how the elder children found interest in hobbies, dressmaking, cobbling, &c., that would later stand them in good stead.

By Christmas, most of the children were receiving full-time education, and school-work was proceeding happily enough under the new conditions. Then came the reaction which followed the lack of immediate danger and the trek back home. The threat appeared again and fresh problems presented themselves, necessitating a fresh distribution of areas. Finally came the air-raids in strength and plans had to be recast again and again. Yet the general health and well-being of the children are acknowledged to be better than ever, a point happily illustrated in the booklet.

" When the history of these days comes to be written ", said Mr. Ramsbotham, President of the Board of Education during the period under review, in a foreword to the booklet, " we shall no doubt find much to regret, but not a little also that gives cause for satisfaction and even for pride.

" The quality of our education and training, as well as the qualities of our British character, have been proved in fighting on land and sea and in the air, and, no less, in the streets and homes of our bombed cities. Day by day, too, in the schools the courage and discipline of children and teachers alike have been helping to maintain the steadiness of our national life. . . .

" There has been disturbance and dislocation, but the schools are carrying on."

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF BOYS' CLUBS

VITAL issues of present and future policy engaged the attention of the 100 delegates to the 16th Annual Conference of the National Association of Boys' Clubs which met at New College, Oxford, on the week-end, July 25–27.

In his chairman's address, Sir Hubert Llewellyn Smith reasserted the aim of the N.A.B.C. as " nothing less than the harmonious development of the whole boy, body, mind and spirit ". He claimed that the best approach to the attainment of this high aim and ideal was through the medium of free association, as it was understood by the Boys' Club movement and the kindred movements of other voluntary associations, and urged that the boys' club was " not a mere temporary stop-gap, but a permanently necessary and independent partner of the State in training the citizens of the future."

He preferred the name " Day Training Centres " for the proposed part-time day continuation schools and envisaged the possibility of providing in each of them separate accommodation for a good boys' club and a good girls' club to be held in the evening, membership of which would be entirely voluntary and not confined to boys and girls attending the same Training Centre.

The Annual Report, which was presented at the Conference, recorded that, though many clubs had closed as the result of loss of leaders and commandeering of premises, no fewer than 215 new clubs had been affiliated during the year. The financial help received from the Jubilee Trust, the Carnegie Trust, and the Board of Education was gratefully acknowledged, and the fruitful co-operation of the N.A.B.C. with the Board of Education and Local Youth Committees in the training of leaders for club work was emphasized. In addition, eighty week-end courses had been held in various parts of the country for training senior club members (between 16 and 18) to take increased responsibility for the management of their clubs. The response had been magnificent.

In an address on " Education and Social Change ", Professor Fred Clarke stressed the value of the continuance of a genuinely educative discipline beyond the years of formal education. He thought that school teachers were doing more than could be expected of them in a society which was in many ways working against them and felt that the full development of a National Youth Service would have valuable reactions both on schools and on industry.

In a talk on " A Doctor's Views on Mixed Clubs ", Dr. Feldman, Chairman of the Association for Jewish

(Continued on page 400)

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Youth, said that if boys and girls were seldom separated in their club life, much of their energies would be dissipated in a natural attempt to excel in the presence of the other sex. Such an attempt if repeated constantly would be an unhealthy element acting as a brake on the free development of the boy and the girl. He advocated separate clubs for boys and girls, with frequent opportunities for mixing at organized activities.

Four club-workers at present serving in the Forces joined in an amusing and illuminating discussion on " The Welfare of the Club Member in the Army ". They agreed that there was a great difference between the soldiers who had been club members or members of other voluntary organizations and those who had not.

Sessions were also devoted to " The Training of Leaders ", " Senior Boys' Training " and " The Girls' Club Programme ". Among the subjects of group discussions, on which reports were presented at the final session, were Future Policy, the Rural Areas, the Effect of the War on the Health and Character of Boys, and the Air Training Corps and Youth Service Squads.

H. J. E.

Board of Education Publications.—*Circular* 1560, " War Damage to Educational Property," gives guidance on the operation of the War Damage Act, 1941, in so far as it affects schools and other educational properties.

Administrative Memorandum No. 310 accompanies a leaflet issued by the Ministry of Home Security entitled " Fighting Fires in Crops ", and suggests how schools in rural areas can give valuable help by making brooms and beaters.

Administrative Memorandum No. 313 asks local education authorities to notify the Board of Education of any members of their teaching or non-teaching staff, whose calling up for national service has been deferred, who leave their employment during the period of deferment.

Administrative Memorandum No. 315 accompanies copies of a memorandum from the Ministry of Agriculture to local education authorities and governing bodies and of a leaflet for distribution among the boys themselves on the subject of the training of town boys for farm work.

Form 31*a U* gives details of the Board's Royal Scholarships and Studentships in Science for 1942, and of the Whitworth Scholarships.

Grant Regulations No. 4 (1941) gives details with regard to the payment to local education authorities of grant in aid of higher education.

State Bursaries in Science.—In order to meet the demands of the Services and of Industry for technical officers, the Board of Education have established a scheme of State Bursaries tenable at universities and at certain technical colleges by boys and girls who have reached the required educational standard. The demand is particularly pressing for men and women for radio work for which physics is essential; others will be required for posts needing qualifications in engineering and in chemistry. The bursaries will cover the payment of fees and maintenance allowances calculated to meet the full cost of residence at the University or College at which the awards are held. They will be offered without regard to parents' circumstances. The qualifying standard will be a pass in physics, chemistry or mathematics in certain combinations in the Higher Certificate Examinations. The Bursaries will shortly be offered by the Board to those candidates who have reached the necessary standard in the Higher Certificate Examinations held recently. Applications are being accepted also from boys and girls who have passed the London Inter B.Sc. in the appropriate subjects, as the result of full-time study. Applications cannot as a rule be entertained from pupils who left school before the end of last term and are now in employment, nor will students at present attending universities and university colleges be considered eligible. The minimum age is 18 years, unless the applicant possesses exceptional qualifications. It is expected that some of the holders of State Bursaries may be able to qualify for a University Degree before they are required for National Service; others will have to relinquish their university course at the end of a year's training. The Board have promised that, in suitable cases, these will be considered after the war for such assistance as may be necessary to enable them to complete a degree course. Eligible candidates, who have not already done so, are being asked to send to the Board of Education (Branksome Dene Hotel, Bournemouth) their name, age, address, and school, together with information as to the university or college to which they would prefer to be allocated and the course (in physics with radio, in electrical engineering with radio, chemistry or engineering) which they would prefer to take. Arrangements have been made by the Scottish Education Department for the award of bursaries to any applicants in Scotland who are deemed to possess the requisite qualifications.

Food for Thought.—This is the title of a Ministry of Agriculture leaflet on the prevention of damage to growing crops. The subject matter is taken from a broadcast talk by Mr. A. W. Ling, the Agricultural Officer to the Board of Education, and supplies of the leaflet have been made available to local education authorities for distribution to schools.

Children who are made Orphans by Enemy Action.—Ministry of Health Circular 2422 gives the main outline of the arrangements which have been made by the Ministry of Pensions for the well-being of pensioned orphans of members of the Mercantile Marine and of civilians who die as a result of enemy action, as well as of those of members of the Forces, and shows the particular respects in which local authorities may cooperate to secure the welfare of the children and also at the same time avoid unnecessary overlapping and waste of effort.

The New President at Cheltenham.—Speaking at Cheltenham on August 12, Mr. R. A. Butler, the new President of the Board of Education, said that he proposed, so far as his work allowed, to go about the country and study the problems of the schools for himself, with a view to seeing what best service could be rendered to education, and what services education, in its turn, could at the present time render to the country. At the present time the schools could contribute in a number of positive ways to the war effort. The extension of school meals, which he hoped would become more and more a normal feature of school life, and the expansion of the milk-in-schools scheme, might go far to maintain a proper standard of nutrition for children. Again, children could be encouraged, as they were so effectively in Cheltenham, to make their contribution to the nation's needs, through school savings, salvage work, and the service of School Service squads. He hoped that the problems of education would be looked at in the broadest manner; there was no departmental monopoly in education; nowhere was this more realized than at the Board itself. We must not get unduly involved in the mechanism of education: machinery there must be, but we must not allow the business of administration to impose a business rather than a spiritual attitude towards our problems. In the coming months every effort would be made to consult local education authorities, teachers, and other partners of the Board, and from such consultation the main lines of future progress would emerge. Important portions of the Fisher Act still remained unimplemented. In particular, we appeared to tolerate the turning of children into the field of life and the industrial arena at the most impressionable age, without proper care or attention. There must be continuity in our educational development: at the same time, we must provide for diversity—diversity of opportunity to meet different tastes and different capacities—but all linked up in one organic whole. There were many

(*Continued on page* 402)

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questions demanding consideration—problems connected with the raising of the school-leaving age, decided by Parliament in the Act of 1936: the recommendation made over twenty years ago to establish Day Continuation Schools, and the relation of these to industry and commerce. Attention, too, must be given to the needs of rural areas. These, and many other possibilities, offered a wide field for review in determining the lines of future progress—progress that must always be related to the preservation of individual liberty and the life of the individual.

Education after the War.—The problem child, adult education, and the university student with insufficient financial means were among the subjects considered by Mr. Chuter Ede, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education, in a lecture to the Co-operative Party's Summer School at Bangor on August 11. Mr. Ede said that the problem child needed more attention and child guidance clinics should be provided in larger numbers. These children might, he suggested, be brought within Part V of the Education Act, thereby making it the duty of the parent to see that his child attended a suitable school provided to cope with his particular difficulty. On adult education, Mr. Ede said that facilities were not spread evenly over the country and a greater measure of co-ordination seemed to be desirable. He suggested that development might be secured if organization were undertaken by bodies representing the various interests concerned working in fairly large areas. These bodies would be responsible for stimulating local demand and for arranging courses and classes to meet it. The student suitable for full-time university training but without the financial means to complete the course must be dealt with. Probably in no sphere of education did the luck of residence exercise a greater influence than in this. The student's resources should be sufficient to enable him to complete an approved course without anxiety. To achieve this desirable standard for all it might be necessary to regard education at this level as a matter of national rather than of local concern.

London County Council.—The Council are still endeavouring to prevent the return of evacuated children to London. They are urging teachers to impress upon parents that London is in the fighting line, though quiet at the moment. Thus those who direct the war want to keep it clear of non-combatants, children in particular. Every extra person in London not needed for its life and defence means more provision of everything—water, fuel, transport, food—just where such collections are most vulnerable. Parents who say "We can take it" forget that every child kept in London or brought back there from a reception area is a hindrance to the war effort. At the last meeting of the Education Committee it was recommended that the Council should cooperate with the education authorities of the metropolitan evacuating area for the holding of special place examinations in 1942; also that the training ship *Exmouth*, hitherto conducted as a poor law school, shall be conducted for the remainder of the war as a nautical training school under the Education Act, 1921. This school will thus be open to fee-paying pupils and to a much wider field of entry. The Report on Juvenile Delinquency issued by the Home Office and the Board of Education has been considered. It is thought unnecessary, at any rate for the present, to arrange local conferences as suggested. "As regards London children and young persons (including those evacuated to reception areas) the war-time increase in delinquency has been slight, and this relative freedom from increasing crime can be ascribed to the manifold preventive measures which have been in operation for many years past and which continue to be carried out with energy."

The Teaching of American History.—"At the present crisis in the history of the world, when the British Commonwealth of Free Nations is being aided to an increasing degree in its struggle against the forces of tyranny by the great American democracy, it is well that the children of England should learn something of the ideals that inspire that nation, of the men that shaped its history, and of the forces that are working to bring her to our side in our greatest need." Thus begins a memorandum (the first of a series on the subject to be issued by the Board of Education) designed to help those teachers who have to deal with American history. The main events do indeed find a place in school teaching. But, outside school, children form from the films a confused and erroneous impression of American life and history. There is urgent need of a corrective and sound knowledge. It is essential that we should rid ourselves of the tendency to assess the history of the U.S.A. according to an English scale of values. An American does not view life from an English standpoint, and international understanding can only come through appreciation of the other nation's point of view. The pamphlet goes on to discuss methods of treatment of certain events, *e.g.* the Civil War, in which, for all except the Abolitionists, the Union, rather than slavery, was the essential issue. Lee, as well as Lincoln, was a hero. Other points to note are the industrial organization which followed the war, the absorption of European immigrants, and the gradual realization that Americans are vitally affected by the course of events in Europe. Children may be brought to realize that Hollywood, hot music, and slang are not the most important features of the life of the U.S.A.; they should come to appreciate the great American leaders and the generous idealism actuating this nation. To do this they must go to literature as well as to history books. The memorandum concludes with a useful bibliography.

Public School Boys and Farmers.—It is announced that substantial help is being given to farmers during the school holidays under a scheme by which 4,000 public school boys, after receiving intensive training as tractor drivers, are able to undertake valuable work. Ninety-four men and fifty women undergraduates of Oxford, after a fortnight's training at the Agricultural Engineering Institute, were appointed to act as instructors at sixty-five of the public schools. Tractors were supplied to the schools by the local county executive committees, and the boys were taught to start and operate them and do necessary maintenance work. After eight to sixteen hours' training each boy should be able to act as relief driver or to undertake straightforward work when more skilled labour is not available. As many as 140 boys at Rugby took the training, and nearly as many at Eton, Marlborough, St. Paul's, Malvern, Uppingham, Oundle, and Bedford. At some schools training was entirely in the hands of women undergraduates, who displayed astonishing efficiency after a short period of training. Goodwill and keenness, in fact, have worked wonders.

Why Children Go to School.—Mr. John Newsom, Chief Education Officer for Hertfordshire, addressing a meeting of the Herts. Federation of Women's Institutes, said it was very curious that there was so little interest in education. He told of some parents who did not even know what school their child attended; all they knew was that she left home about 9 a.m. and went "somewhere round the corner". Some people thought that education was good because it helped a child to earn money, and a lot of people had their children educated merely because it was respectable. Our present education was designed to turn out a nation of clerks, whereas we wanted a nation of men. He was appalled at the number of children who wanted only to be "something in the Civil Service". The only really good education in our State system was to be found in the infants' schools, firstly because they were so far removed from the Universities. The universities were always looking out for the type of people they wanted to go there, and so they invented the School Certificate—a mould through which children were forced irrespective of their inclinations as to their future employment. The secondary school was the biggest blot in the whole educational system, especially when they thought of the sacrifices made by

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parents to send children there. The type of education given in senior schools was far better. All education should go on until 16, all going together until 13, when the manual workers, the brain workers, and the technicians could be sorted out. Mr. Newsom made some good points, but his address strikes us as too sweeping in its condemnations, and containing some criticisms designed rather to raise a laugh than to promote serious thought.

University of London Report.—The Report of the Principal of the University of London, the last to be issued by Mr. H. L. Eason, who retires this year, contains much evidence of war damage in a material sense. Notwithstanding all the handicaps, however, the work of the University "has been maintained at a high standard". A reduction of 25 per cent in the number of internal students is recorded, 40 per cent being expected this year, compared with the pre-war number. Examination results show little effect of the war in the performance of students, the percentage of passes being much the same as under peace-time conditions. The Principal considers that the policy of evacuation has been justified, the damage to academic buildings in London having been so severe that the work of the internal side of the University "would have practically come to an end for the time being". Of the medical schools, "Bart's" has been almost completely destroyed, and the London School of Medicine for Women has suffered severely. The other medical schools have escaped with comparatively little damage.

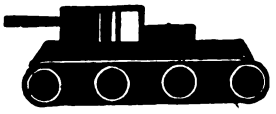
A Modest Appeal.—In his remarkable book, *The Recovery of the West*, Mr. Michael Roberts expresses the view that, as part of a decline in culture during the nineteen-thirties, literary periodicals with a high standard of criticism disappeared as the publishers transferred their advertisements to papers which aimed at a larger public than a strictly critical journal could hope to attract. He declares that by the summer of 1939 the only serious literary papers left were *The Times Literary Supplement*, and "an admirable quarterly called *Scrutiny* with a small circulation". We are now in the summer of 1941, and *Scrutiny* finds itself compelled to give notice that it can no longer carry on, unless the number of regular subscribers—at ten shillings per annum—is increased by a hundred. Having regard to its aims, and the standards achieved in its articles and reviews, this is a modest claim. A good example is provided, in the April number, by Mr. Q. D. Leavis in his article on Jane Austen's writings. On the basis of a careful piece of research he contests the common notion that Jane Austen was an inspired amateur who lightly tossed off masterpieces, but rather a steady professional writer, who put in years of thought and labour in order to achieve each novel. That there ought to be a forum in which such articles as this can find a welcome seems self-evident, and we therefore hope to hear of the success of the appeal.

Soviet Education.—The Society for Cultural Relations with the U.S.S.R. announce a week-end school for teachers on Soviet Education, to be held on Saturday and Sunday, September 13 and 14, at the Royal Hotel, Woburn Place, London, W.C. 1. Lecturers include Andrew Rothstein, Beatrice King, and Dr. Joan McMichael. Application should be made to the Society, 98 Gower Street, London, W.C. 1.

Students' Message to U.S.S.R.—The National Union of Students has sent the following message to the students of the U.S.S.R.: "The Council of the National Union of Students greets the students of the Soviet Union, expresses its sympathy with them in their courageous struggle, and pledges itself to do all in its power to bring about full co-operation between British and Soviet students".

Air for Viola and Piano.—We regret that in the review of this work which appeared in our August number the author's name was given as Robin Mitford. It is, of course, Robin Milford.

WAR ON TEN FRONTS



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Prof. FRED CLARKE, Director of the University of London Institute of Education, summed up the discussion in two articles in the March and April numbers.

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NEW BOOKS

THE NEW HISTORY

By F. J. C. HEARNSHAW, Emeritus Professor of History in the University of London

FEW subjects in the school curriculum, except geography, have changed so completely during recent years as history. The present writer's memories of his schooldays carry him back over a period of more than six decades, but he can well recollect, on the one hand, the dreariness of the text-books employed, and, on the other hand, their trivialities and uselessness. Curtis's *Outlines* was, no doubt, a convenient date-book, and to learn it by heart was perhaps a good exercise in memory-training, but anything more arid it would be difficult to conceive. " Little Arthur ", Mrs. Markham, and Collier were not wholly devoid of merits; but their dull and unilluminated pages conveyed very little information that it was at all important that a future citizen should know. Their defects, and the defects of the syllabus they served, were mainly three. First, they were limited in space; they dealt exclusively with England, touching merely incidentally the contemporary histories of Scotland, Ireland, and Wales, and leaving Europe and the world at large severely alone. Secondly, they were limited in time; they began late, saying nothing respecting the pre-literary aeons, little respecting the Roman period, not much respecting the Anglo-Saxon; moreover, they finished early, hardly dealing at all with events falling within living memory. The present writer in all his schooldays never learned anything about any period later than 1714. The London Matriculation syllabus of the late Victorian days ended with 1700, and one successful matriculant known to the writer, when told that Queen Anne was dead, asked who Queen Anne was, confessing that he had never heard of her. A third defect in the old text-books and syllabuses was that they were strictly limited to political history, ignoring social, economic, literary, and scientific developments, and even in the political sphere consisting largely of anecdotes concerning kings and nobles. The common people were passed over as though they were mere pawns in the great game of statecraft.

The recent changes that have taken place in the study and teaching of history are well illustrated by a batch of new text-books that have just come to hand.

First, the enlargement of scope to include European and world history is seen in Sir John Marriott's *Tragedy of Europe*,[1] a masterly survey of the events intervening between the Treaty of Versailles and the outbreak of the present war. With an amazing command of facts and wealth of sound judgment the veteran publicist and historian explains the genesis of the tragedy; *Problems of Modern Europe*, by J. H. Jackson and K. Lee,[2] an interesting attempt to show at a glance by means of cleverly constructed diagrams the leading political and economic facts of the present-day international situation; *Great Movements in European History*, by H. Moyse-Bartlett,[3] a valuable introductory study of the past two and a half centuries. Nine leading movements are selected, *e.g.* the rise of Prussia and the French Revolution, and are treated in some detail. The sketches are well written and are furnished with ample references to authorities.

Secondly, the vast extension of time covered in modern historical study is also displayed in the same three books, all of which lay particular stress upon events and movements of a very recent past. They indicate that the recording of history nowadays is specially directed to the task of explaining and interpreting the present-day trend of affairs. The extension of time in the other direction, namely into remote antiquity, is illustrated by Maxton and Dance's *March of History*.[4] This most fascinating manual with its wealth of well-chosen pictures, gives an admirable sketch of human progress from the distant Stone Ages to modern times. It is a book not only to stimulate and inspire the young, but also to cure their elders of a tendency to pessimism. The achievements of man will survive when the present calamities are overpast.

Thirdly, the enlargement of the subject matter of history to include much outside the sphere of politics is illustrated by a new edition of Edward Cressy's *Social and Industrial History*,[5] a well-known and deservedly popular manual, originally published twenty years ago. Now brought up to date, it provides an admirable introduction to economic history. *The Story of Britain*, 1485–1714, by H. A. Clement,[6] gives comprehensive sketches of the Tudor and Stuart periods. Specially notable are the sections on economic and social life, and on learning and the arts. Another excellent feature is the attention paid to the European background of the English history of the two centuries covered. *Two Centuries of Change*, by E. J. Hutchins and L. W. Stephens,[7] covers the second of the two centuries. It is a careful well-documented survey of Britain and the Empire from the Treaty of Vienna to the Treaty of Versailles. Its main stress is on the colonial, social, and economic aspects of history. Another interesting feature is unusually long quotations from standard authorities. The extracts given and the references provided should greatly encourage the reading of the classics of modern history.

Dr. James Fox's *Civics*[8] furnishes a lucid outline of the growth and actual working of the British Constitution. It should prove a useful guide to sixth-form pupils and to adult students in the rights and duties of citizenship.

[1] **The Tragedy of Europe.** By Sir JOHN MARRIOTT. (8s. 6d. net. Blackie.)

[2] **Problems of Modern Europe: the Facts at a Glance.** By J. H. JACKSON and K. LEE. (8s. 6d. Cambridge University Press.)

[3] **Great Movements in European History (1660–1919).** By H. MOYSE-BARTLETT. (6s. 6d. Harrap.)

[4] **The March of History: from Earliest Times to Present Day.** By Dr. G. S. MAXTON and E. H. DANCE. (3s. 9d. McDougall's Educational Co.)

[5] **A Brief Sketch of Social and Industrial History.** By E. CRESSY. Second Edition. (3s. 6d. Macmillan.)

[6] **The Story of Britain.** By H. A. CLEMENT. Vol. 2: From 1485 to 1714. (3s. 6d. Harrap.)

[7] **Two Centuries of Change: a History of Great Britain and the British Empire since 1688.** By E. J. HUTCHINS and L. W. STEPHENS. Book 2: 1815–1919. (5s. Blackie.)

[8] **Civics.** By Dr. J. FOX. (5s. Harrap.)

THE BIBLE FOR TO-DAY

By Dr. BASIL YEAXLEE, Reader in Educational Psychology, Oxford University

SINCE the last war we have become steadily more familiar with the fact that to multitudes of men and women in Christian England the Bible means nothing. They never read it. Whatever they were taught at school about it they appear to have forgotten. They do not recognize the source, or even the form, of its most hauntingly beautiful or keenly penetrating phrases and passages.

Much has been done to restore the Bible to its place in our common life and thought. We have had translations, paraphrases, anthologies, dramatizations. There are editions arranged to show the historical development which it records, with explanatory paragraphs which sum up in simple words the illuminating discoveries of explorers and scholars. For teachers the new syllabuses afford admirable guidance. Our most eminent authorities have given of their best in little books and broadcast talks meant to reveal the ever new fascination of the Bible, as well as its unfailing relevance to our deepest needs as individuals and as a people. It would almost seem that no really fresh approach is left.

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For many years, however, Mr. John Stirling has cherished an idea of which *The Bible for To-day** is the rich fruit. In maturing it he has had the sympathy and help of great teachers, such as the late Prof. Peake and Profs. W. O. E. Oesterley and Lee Woolf, with the active co-operation of Mr. Rowland Hilder and other artists. The publishers have made fine use of their resources to produce a most attractive and dignified book. What then are the aim and the hopes with which it is now set before the general reader, the librarian, and the teacher ?

Mr. Stirling takes the plain text of the Authorized Version. (We could indeed have wished that at this time of day the Revised had been used, at any rate for the Old Testament.) He leaves the order untouched but says, " See now, if you read these books through as they stand in our ordinary Bibles this is what they say to the man whose interest and concern are not scholarship and theological argument but life as he and everybody else finds it, in war and peace, as personal wayfaring and social progress —or the reverse ". He shows how the Old Testament deals successively with the holy land, the holy city, the holy temple, some holy books, while the New Testament deals with the holy man—Jesus Christ, the head of a new humanity: Christians, their mission in the present: Christianity, its message for to-day. Within this framework Mr. Stirling supplies introductory paragraphs to books and sections of books, and cross-headings for the paragraphs in which, without verse numbers, the text is arranged. There are a few footnotes on points of particular interest or difficulty, but, for all discussion of critical and theological questions, the great importance of which for a thorough understanding of the Bible is fully recognized, we are referred to ' the standard Commentaries '.

Now this might look like the imposition of an arbitrary interpretation upon the Bible in the interests of popularization, a distortion of historical perspective for the sake of a journalistic and even tendentious appeal, however sincerely religious. But such an impression would be as false as it is hasty. The reader will soon find that however immediate, challenging, and refreshing the Editor's presentation of the Bible as news for to-day shows it to be, all is set against a background of sound knowledge and interpretation. Mr. Stirling discriminates. Thus he makes no attempt to attribute psalms to specific periods and writers, but introduces them as songs of the road. The book, he says, was not planned to be read as he now suggests reading it, but there is gain in settling down and sharing with others the impressions which these poems make upon us as we go through them. On the other hand he makes it clear that " Second Isaiah " is separated by a hundred and fifty years from Isaiah of Jerusalem, and he adds an admirable note or two about the Servant. The real significance of the " Minor Prophets " is brought out by the necessary reference to their historical circumstances. Readers are given, in a sentence or two, enough information about the provenance of Jonah, Daniel, and Revelation to indicate the real meaning of these so often misread writings. The approach to the Epistles is excellent. " We must not look upon them, as some do, as if they were a bundle of old letters dealing with local church problems or points of doctrine that have long ceased to interest men." They are messages to Christian citizens of the world such as the recipients were and we are meant to be. Less satisfactory is the page at the beginning of the Gospels, where each of the four is characterized, but more could have been done, as simply and in the same space, by indicating the actual relationship of the four and the real reason why each was written. A little more of the Spens Report principle of presentation—what the writings meant to those who wrote and for those for whom they were written—would have been useful here.

It is a fine and true appreciation which causes

* **The Bible for To-day.** Edited by J. STIRLING (21s. net. India Ppr. Edn., 30s. net. De Luxe Edn., 42s. net. Oxford University Press).

(*Continued on page 406*)

THE OCTOBER NUMBER OF The Journal of Education WILL BE A Special Review Number

It will give teachers and others, in the form of review-articles and omnibus reviews, authoritative and helpful information in regard to recent and forthcoming educational books, including text-books.

The number will also include:

THE " NON-SELECTIVE " CENTRAL SCHOOL. By H. C. Barnard, Professor of Education, University of Reading.

GEOGRAPHY AND THE WAR IN THE MIDDLE EAST. By J. H. Stembridge, author of *The World, The World-Wide Geographies, The New Oxford Geographies*, &c.

★ ★ ★

THE NOVEMBER NUMBER OF The Journal of Education WILL BE A Special American Number

It will include:

Articles by **R. Birley,** Headmaster of Charterhouse, and **Professor Hale Bellot,** of London University, on books on American history as well as on novels, biographies, &c., which throw light upon the American cultural background.

THE TEACHING OF AMERICAN HISTORY IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS. By Dr. Weitzman, of the University of London Institute of Education.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH HISTORY IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS. By Professor Erling Hunt.

THE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN THE PROMOTION OF BRITISH-AMERICAN UNDERSTANDING. By Cecil Stott, of Aldenham School.

AMERICAN HISTORY IN OUR SCHOOLS. By F. S. Marvin.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF AMERICA. By J. H. Stembridge.

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Mr. Stirling to leave us dwelling upon the final chapters of Revelation as a supreme inspiration to worship: "For worship (the worship of the true and living God) and life are inseparable. Worship is the very soul of life. Without it everything dies; with it, death is no more. Such is the message of this book, and of the whole Bible."

MODERN PHYSICS

By Dr. A. H. STUART, Headmaster, Day Technical School, Hackney Technical Institute

IT is always a pleasure to see old friends in a new dress, in the present case one might almost say in battle-dress, since some of the books here considered have been entirely recast to meet modern conditions.

Stewart and Satterly's *Text-book of Light*[1] has been made into what is practically a new book by Professor Archer, who has retained all the virtues of the old work and introduced many new ones. The book covers, and very amply covers, the needs of students preparing for the Intermediate Examinations in Science and Engineering of the University of London, but the book gives a very sound introduction to the study of Light for whatever purpose it is required.

One welcomes the brief introduction to the Quantum theory and the work associated with the name of Bohr. It is sufficient to give just the bridge he needs to the student proceeding from his initial study to his subsequent work in a very beautiful subject.

A favourite of twenty years' standing, Hutchinson's *Intermediate Text-book of Electricity and Magnetism* is now replaced by *Intermediate Electricity*[2], and the change of title is significant, for in this new book of over 600 pages, magnetism is treated as merely a phase of electricity, electricity in motion, indeed the unity of currents, charges and magnetism is maintained throughout the book. The introductory chapter on the modern conception of the atom is excellent and gives, to quote the author, "just sufficient to enable the student *from the beginning*, to view matters, wherever possible, on the lines on which they are viewed to-day and not as they were regarded years ago".

The book covers all that is required by Intermediate students, with a substantial margin, and there are excellent sections on alternating currents, X-rays, wireless and television. The book is illustrated by thirteen plates and well over 500 line diagrams. It provides a good course both for students who desire a working knowledge of modern electricity and for those who intend to go further with their study of this important subject.

The rapidity with which new editions of the same author's *Wireless*[3] follow each other is sufficient indication of the value of the book. The last edition brings the subject up to date (for the time being). The great merit of the book, and doubtless one of the reasons for its success, is that it does not assume any previous knowledge of either general electricity or its application to wireless, and yet at every stage the reader is given sufficient instruction in the fundamental scientific principles involved to build the whole structure on a very solid foundation. The book meets the needs of those actual or prospective members of the fighting services who are required to have a working knowledge of the principles of wireless communication.

There was a time when those boys who went to school at all proceeded to a university in the normal course of things, and the schools of those far-off days were of course conducted with that end in view. We still feel the influence of that tradition to-day, although only a very small fraction of those who take post-primary education are destined for a university course. It may be that what is good for a university aspirant is good for others; on the other hand more and more is heard of the claims of a curriculum rather less academic in character as a more fitting preparation for commercial or industrial life. The next two books in the group now being reviewed afford good examples of this modern trend. *Introductory Applied Science*[4], Volumes I and II, offer a course of physics suitable for Junior Technical Schools and for those preparatory evening classes leading up to the National Certificate Courses. Volume I is suitable for the first year course in a Junior Technical School and gives a good elementary course in the fundamentals of mechanics, heat and electricity, while Volume II would occupy the second and third years of such a course and deals with more electricity and with sound, light and a little chemistry.

The various applications of these branches of science to modern life are well thought out and this without any sacrifice of sound instruction in the principles involved. The books are well illustrated, and there are many worked examples in the text and exercises at the end of each chapter.

There is general agreement that in the teaching of any branch of science practical work should form a part, but the extent and nature of this practical work and its correlation with the theoretical instruction are matters of private opinion. How much instruction should be given on the conducting of an experiment? How much individual initiative should be allowed, and what is to be done with the result when it is obtained? These are questions which must be answered before any systematic course of practical work can be drawn up.

We have under review two books on practical physics in which the view-point of the authors differs widely. In *Elementary Practical Physics*[5] we have a course designed for schools preparing for the School Certificate. It has been very carefully thought out and the series of experiments are well graded and correlated. The book is so printed that, as it lies open at any given page, there will be found a full description of a single experiment set out on the right-hand page, while on the left-hand page there appears a typical set of results worked out just as they should be entered up in the boy's note-book. All the boy has to do therefore is to read his instructions, make the measurements as directed, and enter up the schedule prepared for him on the left-hand page, substituting his own measurements for those used in the example. In many cases the example is illustrated by drawings which are quite perfect and models of what such things should be. The boy will doubtless be encouraged to copy these for himself (if he can). The system has certain points of advantage in that it reduces to a minimum the difficulties of getting a class started on practical work. It also makes it easy to mark the boys' record books since they will all be nearly alike. On the other hand it takes away a boy's chance of exercising any initiative or of thinking things out for himself. It may be argued that young boys will by this method acquire good habits from the start, but it is not easy to decide at what stage the boy should be cast, even partially, on his own resources.

When this book calls for another edition it would be well to bring it into line with mathematical usage by printing an '0' in front of the decimal point in numbers less than unity. Even on the same page we may find a quantity like 0.84 in one place and .84 in another.

The other book on this subject is *Experimental College Physics*[6]. Here much the same ground is covered but in more detail and to a more advanced stage. It is admitted

[1] **Text-Book of Light.** By Dr. R. W. STEWART and Prof. J. SATTERLY. Revised by C. T. ARCHER. (7s. 6d. University Tutorial Press.)

[2] **Intermediate Electricity.** By R. W. HUTCHINSON. (12s. 6d. University Tutorial Press.)

[3] **Wireless: its Principles and Practice.** By R. W. HUTCHINSON. Fourth Edition, Revised. (4s. 6d. University Tutorial Press.)

[4] **Introductory Applied Science: for Junior Technical Schools and Preparatory Science Courses in Evening Technical Schools.** By H. B. BROWN and S. JONES. (Vol. 1, 3s. 6d. Vol. 2, 4s. Macmillan.)

[5] **Elementary Practical Physics.** By A. H. COOPER. (7s. 6d. Heinemann.)

[6] **Experimental College Physics: a Laboratory Manual.** By Prof. M. W. WHITE. (19s. McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.)

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that the book is intended for older students, but even so the primary aim of the book is to make the student think for himself. In every experiment the theoretical background is discussed, and suggestions rather than detailed instructions may be given. Even if the student gets through the experiment without much effort of thinking, he is confronted by a series of questions on the problem in hand which will certainly encourage him to think. One excellent point is that in every experiment the student must assess the probable error of his measurement at each stage, so that he is in a position to state the degree of accuracy of his result.

All this is to the good, and there can be no doubt that a student who works conscientiously through the course in this book is well equipped for more advanced work, but one wonders what happens to the weakly ones whose mental digestion cannot take this strong meat. Laying these two very interesting books down, the reviewer felt that a young science master entering on his career would do well to ponder over both books, and then perhaps steer a middle course of his own which would include what he considered best in both systems.

The exploits of the Royal Air Force during recent months have fired the imagination of many thousands of young men (and not a few old ones) who have realized that it is not without reason that the control column of an aeroplane is called the joy-stick. The would-be pilot soon discovers that, before he can handle the business end of a joy-stick, he must learn something of what is being operated at the other end of it. For this reason a very hearty welcome should be extended to *Simple Experiments in the Theory of Flight*[7].

Here we have an excellent short course in the basic principles of aero-dynamics, illustrated by experiments which could easily be carried out in a most modest physical laboratory with the aid of a few contributions which any school workshop could provide. It is just the thing for members of the Air Training Corps whether they aspire to be pilots or riggers. What there is in the book is so good that one is tempted to ask for more in the shape of just one brief chapter showing how the aero-dynamical principles which have been established by these simple experiments are applied to the control of an aeroplane, to maintain it on an even keel when it is level straight flight, and in such manoeuvres as turning with the necessary banking, climbing, and diving.

Only the most unobservant of our contemporaries can have escaped noticing the quite phenomenal development of the plastics industry during the past few years. So many things which were made of metal, wood, or earthenware a few years ago are now made of this new material. We mostly accepted the rather drab-coloured Bakelite ashtrays and similar items without enthusiasm, but, when the gaily coloured Beetle appeared on the market, the case was changed, and the future of this industry is now assured. *Plastics*[8], a Pelican Book, givesa n absorbing account of the development of this new industry and its possibilities for the future. It would be a most inspiring book to place in the hands of any boy just beginning the study of the chemistry of the carbon compounds. The authors are acknowledged authorities on the subject, and open the book with a brief historical survey which shows that plastics of various kinds have been in industry for many years, and are not the result of an accidental discovery made through the chemist's cat upsetting a bottle of aldehyde over the cheese in a mouse trap. This fable appears to have as many lives as the cat had. There is an adequate section on the chemistry of the subject which, however, may be omitted by the general reader, without destroying the sequence. The book is a mine of information and is well illustrated. All this for sixpence.

[7] **Simple Experiments in the Theory of Flight.** By M. C. NOKES. (3s. net. Heinemann.)

[8] **Plastics.** By Dr. V. E. YARSLEY and E. G. COUZENS. (6d. Pelican Books.)

Lastly we have *The Boy Electrician*[9]. This is essentially a book aimed at providing boys with profitable amusement during their indoor recreation time, and for this purpose it is excellent. The author knows his subject, and, what is much more important for the purpose in hand, he knows his boy. The sketches are just right, and it is astonishing how much can be done with a few bits of wire, one or two corks, some pins, and a lot of ingenuity.

The book will have achieved a useful purpose if it keeps the boy happily amused. It will do far more than that if it cultivates in him a thirst for knowledge gained through experiment. It can fail in its object only if the boy develops intellectual pride and thinks he knows a lot about a subject of which the best of us know so little. Kindly supervision should easily avoid this however.

[9] **The Boy Electrician: Practical Plans for Electrical Apparatus for Work and Play, with an Explanation of the Principles of Everyday Electricity.** By A. P. MORGAN. Fifth Edition, revised by J. W. SIMS. (6s. net. Harrap.)

Education

The Education of Women at Manchester University, 1883–1933.

By Dr. MABEL TYLECOTE. With an Introductory Chapter by Prof. E. FIDDES. (5s. net. Manchester University Press.)

The belated appearance of this book, the preparation of which was arranged for eight years ago, hardly calls for explanation, and in some ways is an advantage. The work has been done with great care, and is the result of much inquiry and research. A good deal of its detail is of predominantly local interest, and quite naturally so. But the book will also take its place, like Dame Margaret Tuke's history of Bedford College, among those which will be the source-books used by the future historian of the early stages of the higher education of women in this country. To the general reader the book will appeal, because of its vivid glimpses of Victorian England.

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English

English Essays: a Representative Anthology

Edited by W. C. ROBB. (2s. 6d. Blackie.)

This collection of essays may fairly claim to be representative, since it includes selections from the writings of essayists from Bacon to the Editor of *Punch*. Of the thirty-four essays in the volume, only seven are by writers of our own day. We should have preferred to have a little more of Belloc, Chesterton, and Lynd, and rather less of Steele and Goldsmith. This collection will be a useful instrument in the hands of the teacher of English. The private student might perhaps be glad of the exercises and notes which nowadays seem an inseparable accompaniment of any publication of an English classic, but the intelligent teacher will prefer to construct these for himself.

English Essayists

Edited by R. W. JEPSON. (The Heritage of Literature Series.) (2s. 6d. Longmans.)

This is a useful collection of essays by English writers. There are selections from Bacon, Steele, Addison, Goldsmith, Hazlitt, Lamb, Leigh Hunt, Dickens, Thackeray (whose essays, in the opinion of the compiler, do not deserve the neglect they receive), Dobson, and Stevenson. We are a little surprised at the omission of Macaulay, and wish that more extracts had been given from such modern essayists as Belloc, Chesterton, and E. M. Forster.

A New Anthology of Modern Verse, 1920–1940

Chosen, and with an Introduction, by C. DAY LEWIS and L. A. G. STRONG. (6s. net. Methuen.)

This is a worthy supplement to Methuen's *Anthology of Modern Verse* which ended at the year 1920. The introduction consists of an imaginary conversation between the two compilers which explains in most interesting fashion their aims and methods. The poems selected are representative of the period between the two great wars and, as the compilers observe, show a certain preoccupation with social problems. Mr. Day Lewis renews his plea for the treatment of poetry " as an activity lying at the roots of life and springing straight from its heart " instead of " something detached, irrelevant, highbrow " and above the head of the ordinary listener. In addition to poems by such well-known writers as Masefield, Yeats, Edmund Blunden, Siegfried Sassoon, Humbert Wolfe, Edward Shanks, Stephen Spender, and the compilers themselves, the collection includes poems by writers with whom many readers will be unfamiliar. No one who is interested in modern poetry can afford to neglect this admirable anthology.

Boscobel

Adapted and Rewritten within the Thousand-Word Vocabulary by Dr. H. E. PALMER. Part 1 : The Royal Oak. Part 2 : Further Adventures of Prince Charles. (Manilla, 1s. 3d. each. Limp Cloth, 1s. 6d. each. Harrap.)

This version of Harrison Ainsworth's novel is written in Thousand-Word English, with the addition of a few words necessitated by the nature of the story. The thousand caption-word, including inflections, derivatives, &c., are estimated to make up at least 70 per cent of any passage in English. A book written with this limitation of vocabulary provides for the foreign student an admirable introduction to the English language. The story reads well, though the style at times reminds us of our old French exercises. " If that is your belief, get down and climb the tree up to the top." " And you laugh at me if I find nothing. No, I will not climb the tree, but I will fire my gun into its branches. If I bring down Charles Stuart with the shot, you will not laugh at me." However, the general effect is surprisingly good.

Miscellany

New Zealand Observer : a Schoolmaster Looks at America

By J. E. STRACHAN. (9s. 6d. net. New York: Columbia University Press; London: Oxford University Press.)

The Carnegie Corporation of New York did well to persuade Mr. Strachan to allow these letters to be published. Mr. Strachan held in 1938 one of the travel grants of the Corporation. For the benefit of his colleagues in the High School at Rangiora in New Zealand he recorded his impressions quite freely in letters home, and it is these that have been published. Mr. Strachan would be the last to claim the command of any profound philosophy or of elaborate sociological equipment in his approach to the American scene. Indeed, the very ingenuousness of many of his comments gives them not only a charm of their own but also a very real value. Most visitors to U.S.A. from a British country find it difficult to throw off the blinkers of acquired habits and prepossession so as to be able to give fresh experiences their full value. Some do not make the attempt, some are not even aware that such an effort has to be made. It is very much to Mr. Strachan's credit that he makes the effort so honestly and so resolutely. The judicious reader of it will learn quite as much about New Zealand as he will about the United States.

Addresses, 1939–40

By J. D. G. MEDLEY. (2s. net. Melbourne University Press in association with the Oxford University Press.)

A collection of addresses, including some broadcasts, dealing mainly with war-time themes and university aims and ideals. In modest, friendly style, with no great claim either to eloquence or to oracular wisdom, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Melbourne discourses suggestively and helpfully upon his chosen themes. For the English reader it is no small source of interest to catch the whiffs of Australian social and intellectual atmosphere that are exhaled by these talks. The savour is by no means unpleasant and has an attractive tang which those who know Australia will easily recognize.

German *versus* Hun

By C. BRINITZER and BERTHE GROSSBARD. Translated by B. MIALL. (10s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

" Here ", says Mr. Duff Cooper in a foreword, " is the truth about Germany and the Germans written not by any foreigners or enemies but by Germans themselves. Out of their own mouths let them be judged." This is a terrible indictment, but the very fact that the quotations are from German writers shows that some Germans have kept themselves free from the spirit of cruelty and brutality which has culminated in Hitler and the Nazis. The pity is that they seem to have had so little influence over the mass of their fellow-countrymen. As one of them says : " But you who believe that you can influence us in any way by ' truth ' : *Lasciate ogni speranza!* Only bitter experience and disappointment could have any effect in Germany." This book should be widely read in all English-speaking countries.

English Justice

By " SOLICITOR ". (6d. net. Pelican Books.)

It is good to find this outstanding book, first published in 1932 and since revised, taking its place in this famous series. As the author says, something has been done since 1932 to remedy abuses, but all is not yet well. It is still necessary to contend that magistrates should not deliberately be appointed from a class of men peculiarly liable to biased judgment, and that there should be some way of putting right the mistakes which are admittedly inevitable. We hope that the book will have a large sale in this new form.

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Religious Knowledge

St. Mark's Gospel in English

(Revised Version.) Edited, with Introduction and Notes for the Use of Schools, by the Rev. H. K. LUCE. Third Edition, Entirely Reset. (2s. 9d. Black.)

Though published originally fourteen years ago this is practically a new book, in which the R.V. text replaces the A.V. and the notes have been recast. Mr. Luce's aim is first and foremost to enable boys in the fifth form, or thereabouts, to understand the life and teaching of Jesus, with the aid of modern scholarship, without pietism, and in complete loyalty to the faith of the New Testament. Mr. Luce is sparing in annotation, and even in his introduction selects a few special points for treatment. The result is an enlightening, stimulating commentary which a boy can use with real appreciation, and which is more likely to send him to other books in the school library for further information than to weary him with detail or make him look upon the Gospels as just another school-book. Good teachers will find this very much the kind of book they want boys and girls to have in their hands. It will certainly evoke fruitful discussion.

The Cambridge Senior Bible: based on the Cambridgeshire Syllabus of Religious Teaching for Schools

(3s. 6d. Cambridge University Press.)

The well-known *Cambridgeshire Syllabus* has recently been revised, and this volume of selections from the Bible and Apocrypha (Authorized Version, with occasional clarifications) contains all the important references in the new syllabus. It is intended for senior and secondary schools. There are no notes or illustrations.

We hope that many teachers, besides those who use the *Cambridgeshire Syllabus*, will adopt this book as the basis of their Bible teaching. The selection is an admirable one, and includes all that is most valuable for the understanding of the Bible as the record of God's revelation of Himself to man. What is irrelevant to this, or of secondary importance, is omitted—*e.g.*, in the Old Testament there is only enough history to make the progress of the Jews' religious quest intelligible. The result is a volume of perhaps one-third of the Bible's length—almost all of which is pure gold.

A Dramatised Bible Reader: for Use in Schools

By ELIZABETH G. GRAY. The Old Testament. Book II, Part 2—The Early Monarchy. (1s. 6d. Grant Educational Co.)

In September, 1939, we welcomed the first two volumes of this series—which the present writer has since used, with much success, in a class of boys of 12 and 13. Book II, Part 1, dealt with the Judges, Ruth, and Samuel, and this latest volume presents, in three 'Acts', the stories of Saul, David, and Solomon. Miss Gray's dramatization of the narrative is, on the whole, extremely well done—it is lively and ingenious, but not too fanciful. In this particular section of the Bible story one feels that certain episodes, included, no doubt, for their historical significance, are not particularly 'edifying' from the point of view of religious thought; but the teacher can select at his discretion, and we gladly endorse our former recommendation of the series as a novel and valuable contribution to Old Testament teaching.

Readings from the Apocryphal Gospels

Edited, with an Introduction, by H. J. SCHONFIELD. (5s. net. Nelson.)

We have been waking up to the necessity of including some parts of the O.T. Apocrypha in Scripture lessons, if pupils are to understand the literary, historical, and religious background of the New Testament properly, but we are still inclined to ignore or despise the Apocryphal Gospels. These of course are in no respect as valuable, in themselves or as sidelights, as Ecclesiasticus, the Book of Wisdom, or Maccabees. But they reveal tendencies among even Christians of the second to the fifth centuries which throw into clear relief the restraint, the veracity, and the convincing power of the four canonical Gospels. Mr. Schonfield has made an excellent selection of passages, reflecting fairly the variation in these books from imaginative colouring to sheer, immoral miracle-mongering. His introduction is lively but just, though he is surely mistaken in his suggestion that the canonical Gospels "established themselves" for any other reason than that they did contain the authentic story of Jesus, derived from eye-witness sources, and the body of His teaching as it was remembered by those who heard Him.

The Golden Way

1. Stories Jesus Told. 2. Jesus and His Mother. 3. Jesus the Good Shepherd. 4. Jesus opens the Gates. By JOYCE DIXON. 5. Great Claus and Little Claus. 6. Thumbelina. By HANS ANDERSEN. 7. Sing Praises. 8. Little Prayers. (4d. each. Oxford University Press.)

With the exception of the Hans Andersen stories, this new series of readers for young children is more successful in form than in substance. The choice of material is too mixed for any one age-group. Miss Dixon's curious interpretation of Hades and Abraham's bosom, in the story of Dives and Lazarus, lands her in a confusion which even small children (if such a story should be told to them at all) will be quick enough to point out.

How L. A. G. Strong planned his son's education

Here are three extracts from Mr. L. A. G. Strong's recent broadcast talk, in which he explained his own attitude to education and reviewed Sir Richard Livingstone's book *The Future of Education*:—

"I have a small boy of nine, and I want to know what is to become of him. What sort of an education is he going to get, and what sort of a world will it equip him for?"

☆ ☆ ☆

"How can we parents ensure that our children get their chance? Because, as things are, the chance isn't automatic. It isn't every child's birthright"

☆ ☆ ☆

"I have sent my boy to the best preparatory school which is known to me... Have I done well or badly to start him off with the advantage of privilege? If I don't believe in privilege, and I don't, why have I started him on a privileged career?"

☆ ☆ ☆

The whole of Mr. Strong's talk, which described the "brilliantly successful" Danish People's High School experiment, was printed in "The Listener." All the important broadcast talks are printed in

The Listener

3d every Thursday

THE EARS OF THE BUSY TEACHER

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Science

Modern Physical Laboratory Practice

By Dr. J. STRONG, in collaboration with Dr. H. V. NEHER, Dr. A. E. WHITFORD, Dr. C. H. CARTWRIGHT and R. HAYWARD. (25s. net. Blackie.)

Science teachers will find this substantial volume of great value not only as a record of experimental technique, but also as suggesting topics for lectures or classes for students of various grades. It has been written by Dr. Strong of the California Institute of Technology in collaboration with other American physicists, and supplies much information derived from the larger research laboratories. Many of the methods and processes are new and appear here in print for the first time. The book contains fifteen chapters covering such subjects as glass-blowing, optical work, high vacua, Geiger counters, light sources, photoelectric cells, and the construction and design of instruments. A section on the unsteady flow of heat is contributed by Dr. R. M. Langer; this is of considerable interest although the mathematical treatment is more severe than the title of the book would suggest. The liberal use of striking figures is a characteristic feature and these add greatly to the clear presentation of the various subjects.

Possibly the size and price of the book might have been reduced to the advantage of many laboratories by more severe pruning, or by the omission of sections, such as photography, which are the subject matter of specialized works. The volume is well produced, and there is a comprehensive subject index as well as a name index.

Electrochemistry and Electrochemical Analysis: a Theoretical and Practical Treatise for Students and Analysts

By Dr. H. J. S. SAND. Vol. 2: Gravimetric Electrolytic Analysis and Electrolytic Marsh Tests. (5s. net. Blackie.)

This volume of the treatise by Dr. Sand is devoted mainly to the subject of gravimetric electrolytic analysis. It affords a striking illustration of the important technical development that so often occurs in experimental science, resulting in the production of novel experimental methods. These methods are in some instances very complicated, and may require elaborate apparatus and experimental technique. In the subject here described the author himself has contributed to the improvement of the methods of electrochemical analysis, notably that of Lassieur, which he claims is capable of yielding perfectly accurate results. Adequate accounts are given of the developments due to other investigators, including several workers in American laboratories. There is a useful chapter containing a brief explanatory characterization of each important metal.

The World and the Atom

By C. MØLLER and E. RASMUSSEN. Translated from the Second Danish Edition by G. C. WHEELER and B. MIALL. (10s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

Prof. Niels Bohr, the distinguished Danish physicist, in an interesting foreword to this book, explains that it is the joint work of two men of science, one a specialist in experimental, the other in theoretical methods. The combination has produced a well-balanced account of the wonderful developments in atomic physics that have taken place in recent years. The book contains three chapters, and the first describes the golden age of the great discoveries, including radium, electrons, and X-rays. In the second chapter the outworks of the atoms fall, and Bohr's atomic theory wins its way in explaining many of the properties associated with the planetary electrons. The last chapter is concerned with Rutherford's great discovery of the atomic nucleus, and the riddle of the nuclei is expounded, an account being given of the technique of exploding the atom with the production of new elementary particles. " We shall do both physics and technology the best service by allowing the physicists to work along their own paths, which are determined wholly by the urge to attain to greater knowledge of the wonderful laws and the rich life that govern and penetrate even what is called lifeless nature."

A Junior Biology

By K. C. SPARROW. (3s. Heinemann.)

In his preface, Mr. Sparrow tells us that the specific aim of this book is not to make the child a depository of facts which are frequently only on the fringe of his ordinary life. Rather is it an attempt to stimulate and extend the child's question-forming habit and to test all answers by observation and experiment. This is excellent, but the author occasionally falls into the error that he has tried to avoid and includes the factual information, much of which is unsuitable for the children of pre-school certificate standard for whom it was intended. Nevertheless, the book is to be commended as a good attempt to treat junior biology as a continuous and developing subject.

New Style Exercises in Biology

By F. WHITWAM JONES. Part 1: Botany. (1s. 4d. Dent.)

If only for its novelty, Mr. Whitwam Jones' book is worthy of earnest consideration. It consists of a series of detachable pages containing a variety of exercises and questions which, according to the author, should help the pupil of school certificate standard to confirm, apply, and extend the knowledge which he has gained during his school training. One of the dangers of instruction of this kind is the development of a rigid uniformity in the type of apparatus used in each school in order to make the student familiar with the ' classic ' experiments in vogue at the time. Improvisation in the devising of experimental material is of the greatest importance in the progress of good science teaching.

The influence of biology upon human and social relationships will, presumably, be dealt with in the second part of his book, which is yet to be published.

Consumer Science: a Fusion Course in Physical Science applied to Consumer Problems

By A. H. HAUSRATH and J. H. HARMS. (10s. 6d. net. New York: Macmillan.)

Those who are concerned with the teaching of general science should make a point of examining this book. American teachers have had more experience of teaching the subject than we have; they are more willing to try novel departures in syllabus and method; and they work under conditions which are, on the whole, freer. Drs. Hausrath and Harms hope by their science course to help their pupils to become more intelligent consumers of goods and services. They deal only with the physical sciences—there are special courses in biology. Their book is divided into six major units: Understanding Science, Living with Machines, Everyday Electricity, Applied Chemistry, Applying Consumer Science, Science and the Welfare of Man. The last of these units deals chiefly with " safety " problems—in the home, on the road, in industry.

It is interesting to compare this book with texts on general science familiar over here. The American book is bigger (700 large pages) and rather more expensive: the ground covered is far more extensive. Very little quantitative work and very few measurements are included; the style of exposition is chatty and popular; the treatment is observational rather than experimental (though numerous problems to be solved experimentally are included); and very great attention is paid to practical applications and to the social values of the subject. Probably books of this kind indicate the direction in which our own science teaching is likely to evolve, especially in the senior and central schools.

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Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

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Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

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THREE Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

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For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

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(*b*) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

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The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

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MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS M.A. (Cantab.).

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Candidates may take the Examination at their Preparatory Schools or at Malvern.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEADMASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in September.

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AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June.

For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

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OCTOBER 1, 1941

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

DR. EDOUARD BENES, President of the Czechslovak Republic, has given in *The Daily Telegraph* an analysis of the fantastic principles of education laid down by Hitler and their application to the institutions of that country. Pointing out that Hitler explicitly declares that the National State must accept learning only as an instrument for the fostering of national pride, and that all education must be based on the inculcation into German youths of the conviction that they are unconditionally superior to others, he proceeds to show how this conception provokes hate, intolerance, blind partisanship, mystic prejudices, and fanatical faith. The practical results are catastrophic, both in Germany and in the countries temporarily enslaved. As soon as the Germans took over Northern Bohemia after Munich they closed all the elementary and secondary schools, though they were the educational centres for the children among a million Czechs who lived in the region. All the organizations for popular education were dissolved.

Nazi "Culture."

WITH the occupation of Prague the Nazis began a systematic destruction of the cultural life of the Czechs, although 94 per cent of the population in the German Protectorate were of Czech nationality and had been promised cultural autonomy. They banned Dvorak's Slavonic dances and some of Smetana's operas; removed the works of Czech and foreign authors from the libraries; destroyed artistic monuments; massacred hundreds of university students and sent some 4,000 to concentration camps; and persecuted the university teachers. These and other facts, says Dr. Benes, "compel us to the conclusion that a defeated Germany must receive a special education which shall bring back new generations of Germans to European civilization and culture. . . . I know that it is, and will be, difficult to find out the proper way of doing this; but this necessity is of such fundamental importance for the future peace of Europe that the people who really desire to create a better world after the present catastrophe must think it over and find out the way for the realization of this important task". Evidently this means changing the outlook of a whole people—a colossal undertaking.

The Re-education of the Germans.

IT was only towards the end of last century, says a writer in *Britain To-day*, that the Russian mind began to be revealed to the British. Then it was that, in reading translations of Tolstoi's novels, British readers were at last introduced to authentic Russian life. Thenceforward the Russian as a human being was alive on the world's stage. The interest awakened was continued by translations of the works of Turgenev, Dostoievski, Gorki, and Tchekhov—names which remind us how the mental and artistic life of Britain was touched by Russian influences. The life of Russia has, however, been mostly shut off from our view since the Bolshevik revolution. Yet, in spite of revolutionary changes, the Russian character abides, as we are now beginning to understand. In this connexion *The Anglo-Soviet Journal*, the organ of the Society for Cultural Relations between the British Commonwealth of Nations and the U.S.S.R., is well worth attention. One of the most instructive of a number of articles in the present issue bears the title "Soviet Youth in Education and Service". Interesting accounts are given, showing that the Soviet seven-year school, with various facilities for continued study, is supplemented in many ways, among which holiday expeditions take an important place. Our too rigid distinction between the vocational and the cultural finds no place in a country in which every child's education includes training in some craft or trade. We may be sure that political education begins early and is

The Real Russia.

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universal. The rules for the earning of a famous badge " Ready for Labour and Defence ", which hundreds of thousands of young people have earned every year, help to explain some of the wonderful powers of resistance put up by the Russian people. Part of the tragedy now being enacted is that much of the fabric of this new civilization already lies in ruins.

Evacuation Problems—

INCREASING concern is rightly felt at the continued presence of large numbers of children in the danger areas. *The Manchester Guardian* states that from Sheffield only some 1,500 children out of 30,000 are evacuated; of Manchester's 91,000 children less than 12,000 were in reception areas in May last, and many have returned since then; in Edinburgh nine out of eleven children are living in the city, in Glasgow three out of four, and in Birmingham four out of five. Other districts tell similar tales. It is now being asked why the appeal made to parents has been so signal a failure. A correspondent writing to *The Times Educational Supplement* says that evacuation is bitterly unpopular in areas with which he is acquainted, and he thinks that the fact that parents, even in Plymouth and London, have recalled their children, shows that there is something seriously wrong with the present system.

—And the Remedy.

PARENTS are getting more than their fair share of blame. What chance of happiness has a child in a household in which he is an unwanted intruder? He is miserable in a family whose manners, way of life, and speech are quite different from those to which he has been accustomed. But evacuation could be made a success if a modified boarding-school system were adopted. There are a great many large houses, empty or occupied by one or two people; Government departments have requisitioned others which they are not using; school camps could be built quite quickly and cheaply. Certain problems, including that of sanitation, could be overcome; but, so long as the children had companionship and a home which was really theirs, they would be happy. *The Times Educational Supplement* says that only the teachers of Great Britain can end this state of things, and asserts that a resolute campaign, initiated and sustained by the teachers' organizations, could transform the present position within a month. This may be an optimistic opinion, but that does not make the matter any less urgent. If, as suggested above, large houses and camps could be utilized in such a way as to keep schools together and diminish the admitted drawbacks resulting from billeting in small private houses, much good might result.

Teachers and A.R.P.

A LOCAL A.R.P. news-sheet refers to an article in *The New Statesman and Nation* dealing with a recent fierce attack upon a large industrial town in the north. The article says that in spite of all warnings the local authorities in the area were not fully prepared. " It was the teachers who saved the day. In one big centre a language master took command. With his colleagues and with the help of the pupils they had been teaching a few hours before, they prepared some sort of reception for the homeless, a reception which was at least human and kindly, despite the fact that there were no proper arrangements for feeding them, and no mattresses, although blankets were sent in. The teachers and the school children went round with clothes-baskets to the housewives of the district and ' scrounged ' cups, plates, cutlery, and even food. They helped to prepare meals. Even on the first night, with the help of the M.O.I. film unit, they gave a film show which diverted the homeless and organized a concert. After three days I found that this language master had not had his clothes off and had been working constantly night and day." We fear that there are still towns which are equally ill prepared. The only safe way is to prepare for the worst.

Poverty and Family Allowances.

" POVERTY is to a large extent associated with the bringing up of children." We quote from the leading article in *The Times* on Mr. Seebohm Rowntree's *Poverty and Progress*, a report based on working-class life in York. This tragedy should be avoidable by wise statesmanship. The fall in the birth-rate is one consequence. In a hundred York families in 1899 there were 404 persons; now only 337. If depopulation produces smaller classes in our elementary schools, that may be a silver lining; but the dark cloud remains. Mr. Rowntree's report should be studied by those responsible for social legislation, including educational legislation. Obviously his facts and figures have a bearing on the questions of the school age and of family allowances. Public and political propagandists should mark its lessons. Parents may be reminded that, if children are a burden—never a curse—in early married life, they pay generous dividends in later life for their education and rearing. Sir Malcolm Stewart, in a letter to *The Times*, urges the passing of an Act to provide a scheme for family allowances. In June 1940 we published a note on this subject in which we said that, where there was a family to provide for, the increased cost of living was a serious matter, and urged the Government to consider a scheme of family allowances, not merely as a means of relief but as a help to the maintenance of the population. Unless the present birth-rate can be increased the Empire and its schools will be in danger.

Winning the Peace.

WE applaud the efforts of members of the teaching profession who are learning from first-hand and sometimes bitter experience what this war means to many of the children of Britain, and who are determined to make their voices heard. An outstanding example is Mr. Eddie Williams, chairman of the South Wales Children's Nutrition Council. Long years before the war was upon us, Mr. Williams fought the children's battle at Blaina, one of the most distressed places in a terribly distressed area. A distinguished son of Wales once wrote to him, " I wonder you are not a flaming

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red ". " If I am not ", replied he, " it is because I love my country, but I certainly get into flaming tempers, especially when I hear the sad stories from men who fought and went over the top with me." Mr. Williams' main effort at present is towards giving practical effect to Sir Maurice Holmes' declared opinion that " there is no aspect of education that is to my mind of more importance than school feeding ". But Mr. Williams has also some shrewd things to say about parental responsibility (and irresponsibility!), about juvenile delinquency, about limited objectives in teaching during the war, and about that " form-filling folly " from which head teachers in particular suffer. Like many others he gets tired of driving home the truth that " we are not going to win the peace if we neglect the children ". But he must persevere. That he is doing so is proved by his latest pamphlet on evacuation problems, which is marked equally by ' the enthusiasm of humanity ', by practical insight, and by good sense.

The Burnham Recommendations.

THE negotiations for a War Bonus for teachers were carried a stage further at a joint meeting of the Burnham Secondary, Technical, and Elementary Committees on September 11. The situation was affected by the new Civil Service Award, which provides from September 1, 1941, a bonus of 10s. a week for men and 7s. 6d. a week for women whose salaries do not exceed £250 per annum, and 5s. a week for men and 4s. a week for women whose salaries are between £250 and £500. As the Civil Service pension scheme is a non-contributory one and that for teachers is contributory, the latter felt entitled, if the Civil Service figures were to be taken as a guide, to ask for a slightly higher ' ceiling '. The local authorities' representatives recognized the force of this contention, and the Burnham Committees as a whole decided to recommend to their constituent bodies that from September 1, 1941, and onwards the bonus on salaries up to £262 10s. should be £26 for men and £19 10s. for women; on salaries over £262 10s. and up to £525 the bonus should be £13 for men and £10 8s. for women. These recommendations require the approval of the constituent local education authorities' and teachers' organizations and the endorsement of the Board of Education before they can come into effect. There can, we think, be little doubt that this approval will be given. The proposals by no means err on the side of generosity to the teachers, but they no doubt represent the utmost that can be obtained in present circumstances, and they ensure that every teacher earning up to £525 a year gets something. So far nothing has been done to assist those teachers who have retired on pension. We should like to see the scheme amended in order to include them.

The A.B.C.A.

THE Army Bureau of Current Affairs, to be known as The A.B.C.A., is an interesting development aimed at satisfying the educational demands of the army. The idea is to inform men in the army about current affairs and the progress of the war. The ordinary soldier needs to know why he is in the army and why it is necessary for him to be a soldier. Commanders of every rank are expected to make every effort to ensure the success of the scheme, which, unlike previous educational facilities in the army, is to involve compulsory attendance. This fact makes it of supreme importance that those who undertake to lead the discussions and lectures shall prepare themselves very thoroughly for this duty. Every officer, we are told, will be supplied with weekly bulletins on the basis of which he can talk to his men. We hope, however, that it is not unkind to suggest that these alone may well be found insufficient unless works of reference are also available. It has been suggested that the ' briefs ' may be too official in character, and that there may be too much of an air of propaganda about them. However, we see no danger here if, as is doubtless intended, questions and free discussion are to be encouraged. In fact the new procedure is likely to be of considerable value. Many officers will soon realize that some of their men have thought more about such matters than they themselves have, and keen question and answer can do nothing but good. On the other hand, any attempt at pontifical pronouncements would deservedly meet with failure.

The President and some of his Advisers.

IT is all to the good that our leading newspaper should devote space to the subject of religious education, but we cannot agree with the implication of a leading article in *The Times* that, the churches having composed their differences, legislative or administrative action should immediately follow. Since the article appeared a rather long trail of letters has appeared in *The Times*, most of them signed by persons of distinction. We have a strong persuasion that on certain points touched upon in these letters the nameless but ubiquitous man-in-the-street will have something to say, and will insist on being heard. It is a mistake, for example, to regard the teachers as representing a mere ' sectional interest ', characterized by the less desirable aspects of trade unionism. The recently published Cambridge Survey of Evacuation shows that in their hour of agony the mothers of London trusted the teachers of London, and that but for the efforts of the teachers, whose opinions on many points had not been asked, the scheme would have been a still greater failure. These are facts which have nothing to do with ' sectional interests ', but are reminders that the teaching profession is a pillar of democracy. Again, some of *The Times*' correspondents seem to handle too carelessly the thorny question of religious tests for teachers, a question on which the man-in-the-street will, we believe, have something to say. We are glad to see that *The Times* has so selected the letters as to represent antagonistic points of view which tend to cancel one another.

IN our September issue we made brief reference to the important deputation representing the Anglican and Free Churches which had been received by the new

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President of the Board of Education. No one in particular is responsible for the frequent changes in the holder of that office, and we can only hope that Mr. Butler, who has proved his broadminded statesmanship elsewhere, will remain in his new post long enough to do a thorough piece of work at a time when it is sorely needed. Meantime he is obviously, and we think wisely, determined not to be 'drawn' until he has heard all sides. Churchmen and Nonconformists, having come through decades of bitter and as yet unforgotten controversy, have at length decided that there must be some unity if there is to be any strength. If they assumed that, their 'sectional interests' having been composed, other 'sectional interests' must at once fall into line, Mr. Butler quietly but effectively undeceived them. One by one he passed in review the well-known five points, and replied in effect, "Yes, I hear what you say, but I must also hear for myself what the local authorities and the teachers have to say". For ourselves, though we see no difficulty in the point relating to time-tables, and little difficulty in the point relating to H.M. Inspectors, we make no complaint. True, Mr. Butler's former office must have been a severe school of caution, but his habit of caution is not misplaced in his present office, when faced with a subject which most of his predecessors have been afraid to touch, and which has caused some of them to burn their fingers.

The New President

THE Welsh Federation of Local Education Authorities, at its annual meeting this year, displayed refreshing vigour in the enunciation of the Welsh point of view on current educational problems and plans for reconstruction. The President, Sir William Jenkins, said he was tired of appearing before committees to answer questions for reports. They knew what Wales wanted and the time would soon come when they must move and not merely talk. The old system needed overhauling—complete overhauling—and the new system for Wales must be planned on the needs and ideals of Wales. The Executive particularly emphasized the need for a new 'black list' of schools, bearing in mind the findings of the 'Clement Davies' Committee on Tuberculosis in Wales. On the whole the new Davidson Report was accepted, but increased staffing allowances were asked for in view of the bilingual problem, and a revision of the rule governing payment for evacuated secondary school children in view of the low fees charged in Welsh secondary schools. As to religious education, the Executive made a pronouncement which makes it clear that the Archbishops' Five Points will have to bear the brunt of much sharp criticism in Wales. It deprecated unfair attacks on religious education in council schools, said that the Anson Clause and Section 13 of the Act of 1901 are sufficient to supplement, where desired, the agreed syllabuses now generally used, and warned the Federation against proposed changes which would imperil national unity.

Welsh Education Authorities and Current Problems.

IT is nearly twenty years since Mr. Ifan ab Owen Edwards, J.P., the son of Sir Owen Edwards (first Chief Inspector of the Welsh Department of the Board of Education) founded *Urdd Gobaith Cymru* (the Welsh League of Youth). This venture has captured the imagination of the Welsh people and has done great work for Welsh children through *Eisteddfodau* (Literary and Musical Festivals), National Games, and all kinds of local cultural and educational activities. Since the war broke out the work has developed among young people from 14 to 20 in accordance with the suggestions of Circular 1486 of the Board of Education, and the results have surpassed all expectations. One main activity has been the setting up throughout Wales of '*Aelwydydd*' (Youth Clubs). Starting from small beginnings, the number of these clubs is now ninety-five; they have been helped by grants from the Board of Education and the local education authorities, and the greater part of their organization is in the hands of the young people themselves. Other activities of the *Urdd* include a carefully organized scheme of training courses for youth club leaders, dealing with music, drama, craftwork, and religious and social questions; these have been already begun, and will be carried on intensively throughout the winter. Summer camps, in spite of many difficulties, have also been held; and a special magazine, entitled *Yr Aelwyd*, which began a year ago as a cyclostyled production, will appear this month in a printed form. An *Urdd* National Eisteddfod is planned for 1942; and another experiment, of which more will be heard in the future, is a Welsh private school held at the *Urdd* Headquarters at Aberystwyth.

The Youth Movement in Wales.

THE war-time Senior Leaving Certificate of the Scottish Education Department continues to serve a useful purpose. Designed this year on regional lines, as against the method of examinations set by the teachers in each individual school, it has been well received and no marked change will be made in the machinery of examination for 1942. Pupils who are proceeding to the universities or similar institutions make application to the appropriate entrance board, and the board in its turn gets private information from the Department as to the performance of the applicant. The method has its cumbrous side. Nevertheless it has the supreme merit of ensuring that every applicant for admission gets individual attention and thus of eliminating hardship due to war conditions. The scheme is open to the objection that standards must inevitably vary to some extent, and there seems little doubt that, when normal times come round again, teachers will wish to go back to an examination conducted on national rather than on regional lines. The present experience, however, is distinctly valuable since it has given the opportunity, on a large scale, for experimentation in that most difficult of all secondary school problems, to wit, the place of the examination in the life of the secondary school pupil.

The Scottish Leaving Certificate.

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THE CENTRAL OR MODERN SCHOOL

By Professor H. C. BARNARD, University of Reading

NOTHING is clearer than the intention of the Hadow Report to regard all types of post-primary school as institutions of equal rank. " We regard it as most important that the new modern schools and senior classes should not become inferior secondary schools " (p. 108). " This growth " (*i.e.* of " modern " schools) " will run side by side with, but in no sense counter to, the growth of secondary schools; and, while it will differ in kind, it will not be inferior in its promise or quality " (p. 20). While the secondary school was to be rather of an academic type, the senior and central schools were to emphasize practical instruction and manual work, and to have a realistic bias related to industrial, commercial, or rural life. Children were to be drafted to these different types of school according to their aptitudes and needs, and not according to their social position or their parents' income. The *New Prospect in Education* (p. 1) says: " It is important to grasp the fact that the Report has in mind *all* sorts and conditions of children, the humble and the weak as well as the mighty and the strong. . . . The claims of attainment and capacity are to be satisfied by variety of treatment." It is obvious that, if the Consultative Committee really meant what they said, they had in mind a system of post-primary education in which each child would receive that type of instruction for which he was best fitted, and this ' fitness ' would be the only consideration to be taken into account in deciding the type of school to which he should be sent.

It is evident that we have not yet succeeded in giving effect to this recommendation. Few people really believe that the senior or central school is not " an inferior species of secondary school " (see *Hadow Report*, p. 131). Setting aside the public schools, which—to judge from some recent articles in *The Journal of Education*—seem to congratulate themselves that they are not as other men are, there still persists a stratification in the national system. Above is the secondary school, and the grant-aided or direct-grant school tends to consider itself superior to the maintained school; while the lowest and largest place is occupied by the " modern " schools of various types. These schools, instead of making the best use of their freedom, may be tempted to imitate the secondary school, or driven by the demands of employers to take certificate examinations so that their ex-pupils can compete with those of the secondary school. Instead of trying to evolve a life and a curriculum of their own, they may be content with teaching a much watered-down secondary school curriculum along formal or academic lines. They may, for example, feel constrained to teach French—sometimes with very poor results, to judge by what I have seen—in order to compensate in some measure for the sense of inferiority induced in their better pupils by failure to secure ' special places ' in a secondary or selective central school.

This tendency to look down on one type of school, or to attempt to copy another type, is still in evidence in spite of the Hadow recommendations. As a result the non-selective central school sometimes runs a risk of being looked upon as the ' duds' ' school—the lowest form of post-primary education and a kind of educational scrap-heap. Yet the great bulk of the nation's children—the next generation—are being educated in this type of school. As Mr. Lowndes says in his *Silent Social Revolution* (p. 149), " it is upon the purpose or want of purpose of these schools that the best educational thought of the nation must be concentrated in the next twenty years, if the ideal set before English education by the Hadow Report is to be completely realized." That statement is more true than ever now that the war has come upon us.

We are not likely to overcome the stratification of schools and the consequent depreciation of the central school by vague talk about " equality of opportunity " in education. That is largely a question of social conditions, for there can be no real initial " equality of opportunity " as between a child born in a slum and the offspring of cultured, intelligent and well-to-do parents. But we *could* forthwith abolish the distinction between ' elementary ' and ' secondary ' schools, which so often implies larger classes, meaner conditions, and lower-paid teachers for the former. If for administrative purposes a distinction is really needed, it should be on the lines indicated by the Hadow Report—between ' primary ' and ' post-primary ' or ' secondary ' types of school. In this case the central school would take its place as a single " species of the genus secondary "—to quote the Consultative Committee's wording.

The first step to that end should be the abolition of tuition fees in *all* types of post-primary school. If one brand of tea costs more than another brand, the former is normally assumed to be the better. Similarly parents not unnaturally rate the education given in ' public ' schools, ' secondary ' schools and ' elementary ' schools according as the fees are high, low, or non-existent. My own experience as headmaster of a ' secondary ' school strongly confirms this. If I recommended that one of my boys should be transferred to an excellent local junior technical school because he showed marked ability in practical subjects, his parents would at once protest on the ground that in my school the tuition fees were five guineas a term and at the technical school only two pounds. The only way to get rid of such criteria is to make the question of fees entirely irrelevant. There would still remain private fee-paying schools of various sorts. It has been suggested that the logical solution would be to establish multilateral schools, to abolish the ' public ' and private schools and to devote educational endowments to the benefit of those for whom they were originally intended. But as a nation we prefer a compromise to strict logic and are more ready to adapt than to destroy. All the same we are likely to see some drastic changes in this respect.

If then the central school is a post-primary school for a certain *type* of child, and not for pupils drawn largely from a certain social class, we must decide what this ' type ' is going to be. The more intellectual children are ' creamed ' off by a competitive examination; but, as Ward points out, " it is by no means to be assumed that a non-selective school has inferior material to handle " (*Educational System of England and Wales* (p. 100)). In the course of an investigation carried out by one of my colleagues in the schools of a particular area, it was found that 21 per cent of the children in the senior schools had I.Q's. of 110 to 115 and 15 per cent I.Q's. of over 115; while in the selective central schools 27 per cent had I.Q's. of less than 110 and 46 per cent I.Q's. of less than 115. If " intelligence " alone were the criterion, there are plenty of pupils in secondary and public schools who ought to be transferred to senior schools. It might well be argued that, in a reconstruction of national education after the war, we should concentrate on three main types of post-primary school, each admitting of variety and individuality: (i) The ' secondary ' or ' grammar ' school, which gives an education with an academic bias. (ii) The ' technical ' school, which has already ceased to be purely vocational and now includes definitely cultural training in its curriculum. It would bulk very much more in the national system than it does at present; it would deal with rural as well as urban occupations; and it would take a large number of pupils who at present find their way to the ' grammar ' school or the selective central school. (iii) The ' modern ' or non-selective central school which caters for those who are not

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fitted for either an academic or a specialized technical training, but for whom a general education with a practical bias, determined by local conditions, is indicated. As these local conditions vary greatly, so also does this type of school vary. It also provides for children of greatly varying ability, and it must therefore be of a reasonable size and necessarily be organized in 'streams'. But, if all these children are in one type of school and (as I hope to show) can to some extent cooperate in their work if the rigid time-table system is relaxed, this fact again will help to establish the central school as equivalent in value and status to the other two types of post-primary school.

We still have to decide the principles upon which children leaving the primary school should be drafted to one or other of these types of post-primary school. This implies a thorough overhaul of the 'special place' examination—an element in our national educational system about which some misgivings may justly be felt and on which there is still room for research and experiment. So long as this examination emphasizes the competitive element, 'parity' between the various forms of post-primary education is impossible. If it is known that those who obtain the highest places will go to the secondary school, the next in order on the list to the selective central school or junior technical school, and the 'also-rans' to a non-selective central school, the old pre-Hadow gradation of schools will persist. The examination itself—so far as I can judge from my own experience as a headmaster—is not a very satisfactory method of selecting candidates even for the secondary school. Too often it encourages the smart and 'slick' and handicaps the deliberate and reflective. It tests intellectual ability and leaves personal qualities out of account. The conditions under which it is held affect the candidates in different ways; some children of eleven are quite overcome by the magnitude of sitting for a public examination in some strange, huge building, under quite unfamiliar conditions. If these written tests are retained, they should be taken in the candidate's own junior school. Moreover, the 'special place' examination, as usually constituted at present, is not necessarily a satisfactory method of selection for schools of various *types*, for it is based for all children alike on ability in English and arithmetic and on an intelligence test. It may be necessary to retain this examination as part of the machinery for selection, but other methods should be combined with it. Even if we could be assured of the complete reliability of the written examination, and could avoid the tendency to 'coach' for it in the junior school, this would not be enough. The Spens Report, in suggesting selection for technical high schools, recommends an interview in which the parents and child, a local educational official, and the head of the post-primary school all take part. Some of the technique of vocational guidance can doubtless be adapted to meet the situation. The *livret scolaire* or 'school record' and the considered opinion of the head of the primary school are also of the highest importance. It is often argued that such records or testimonials are unreliable or hard to equate; but they have been used in France and America and Germany, and by some of our own local education authorities, and there is no reason why we cannot devise a satisfactory method of using them. Thus, on a basis of written or oral examination, intelligence and attainment tests, interviews, records, and any other relevant information, a careful assessment would be made. No list in order of merit would be published; no particular primary school would be commended or advertised in the local press because of the number of 'scholarships' which it had obtained. But all children at some time during the final year of the junior school would be tested and classified according to the particular type and stage of ability which they seemed to show; and they would be drafted to the particular kind of post-primary school to which they appeared to be best suited. Thus the central school (which would lose its present title and be better called the 'modern' school) would maintain its equality of status as compared with other post-primary schools, and would no longer be the school of children who had failed in a competitive examination or were considered too unintelligent to sit for it.

Even a revised method of selection for post-primary schools should not be regarded as final. Some children develop late or show special aptitudes at the post-primary stage; others do not fulfil expectations. The only remedy for this is the possibility of easy transfer as between *any* types of post-primary school. This is perhaps effected best at the age of 13—unless we adopt the suggestion that the post-primary course should begin at 9 and further transfers effected at 11; or alternatively we might give up the fetish of 11+ and begin post-primary education about the age of 13. Once we have secured the Hadow 'equality' of post-primary type, transfer in any direction will be far easier than it is at present; and a child will not lose caste by being moved, for his own educational benefit, from a 'secondary' to a senior school, nor gain caste by transference from a modern school to a technical school.

It has been necessary to discuss other types of school in order to put the central school in its rightful position in the educational system of the country. It remains to say something of the central school in itself. If it is to be placed in this position of functional equality with other secondary schools it must enjoy similar amenities with them. We must give up for ever—as indeed we are already doing—the idea that inferior buildings, less adequate equipment, and larger classes are sufficient for the central school. Playing-field accommodation is also as urgent a need for it as for any other type of secondary school. In some areas effect has been given to Mr. J. H. Whitehouse's suggestion that urban local authorities, in their town-planning schemes, should allot a large area as a "school base".[1] Here the schools would be built in groups, surrounded by open spaces. If this could be done the post-war senior school would be sure of a quiet situation, away from noisy roads, shunting-yards and factories, instead of being housed—as so often at present—in a huge barracks with an asphalted yard, in the heart of a densely crowded area.

The *compulsory* leaving-age in the central school should not be inferior to that in the secondary or technical high school; and this means that the school leaving-age should be raised not merely to 15, but eventually to 16. Mr. Ramsbotham has adumbrated this in a speech made in January, 1941, to the A.M.A.; he endorsed the assertion of the Spens Report that "the adoption of a minimum leaving age of 16 . . . may not be immediately practicable but must even now be regarded as inevitable" (p. 311). But "raising the school age" should imply in all types of secondary school alike the completion of the post-primary course, and not simply leaving school directly the prescribed age is attained.

It is not enough that the buildings and equipment and length of school-life of the central school should not be inferior to those of any other kind of secondary school. The parity of all post-primary schools must be symbolized by their inclusion in one code of regulations for administrative purposes. The term 'elementary education' must cease to have any but a historical significance and must disappear utterly from the vocabulary of the Board of Education and of local education authorities. There is no room either for the distinction between 'Part II' and 'Part III' Authorities; and local feeling must not be allowed to perpetuate this anomaly. So long as these things persist, the central school can never really come into its own. This consideration, moreover, involves the Burnham Scales. Financial considerations explain, but do not justify, higher salaries for 'grammar' or technical school teachers than for their colleagues in other secondary schools. In view of the fact that the central school will educate the bulk of the democracy which will have to deal with post-

[1] See J. H. Whitehouse: *Education*, "In My Time" Series.

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war problems, its teachers have—at the very least—a responsibility as great as that of other teachers; and they should therefore not be paid at inferior rates. But the correlative of this is a high standard of qualification for the teachers of the central school. The unqualified, or half-qualified, or (worse still) the uncultured, teacher has no place in this type of school—or anywhere else. A narrow outlook, formal or routine methods of teaching, are as inappropriate in the central school as in any other; and the securing of equality of status for all types of secondary school will have its repercussions not only in educational administration, but also in the whole system of teacher-training. It will, in fact, involve our whole conception of the work of the teacher and his position in the community. Why, for example, should it not become as natural and normal for a young man of high academic achievement or wealthy parentage to serve as a teacher in a slum or rural school, as it is at present for him to be ordained to a title in the East End or become a country curate?

The curriculum of the senior school is another matter to which much consideration is rightly being given. It comes down to us from the days before reorganization, and there has in the past been too much tendency to rigidity of time-table and stereotyped methods of teaching—an inheritance from the days of huge classes and utilitarian views of education. The spread of enlightened ideas (for which the training colleges can take some credit) and, more recently, the stress of evacuation have helped to overcome some of this rigidity. Children in the central school are not necessarily taught most profitably along lines appropriate to the more academically minded 'grammar' school type, or even to the technical type. There is plenty of room for experiment as to the best method of dealing with this kind of child; the question has certainly not yet been finally settled, nor will it be settled by mere theorizing. But the problem is being tackled and Mr. Greenhough, of Chesterfield, for example, has show us in his system of "Free Groups" how the inherent time-table difficulties can be overcome.[2] There must still be room, of course, for class-teaching along more or less orthodox lines, and for this purpose the school will be divided into the usual 'streams'. But there should be ample opportunity for co-operative activities to which children from different streams can all contribute something. These may take the form of 'projects' of various kinds, excursions and journeys, visits and surveys, summer camps, dramatic, musical, artistic or craft activities, the keeping of animals, the playing of games. All these things should be regarded not as trimmings or extras or out-of-school concerns, but as an integral part of the serious business of the school, at least equal in value to the more formal work of the class-room. If children lose interest in what they have learnt at school and never return to it once they have left, they have either studied the wrong subjects or they have been badly taught. Even if it saves trouble to have a stereotyped curriculum prescribed by regulations for all pupils alike, there is no magic in this. Certain skills —*e.g.* ability to read and write English and to calculate— are necessary minima; but to reduce the work of the central school to a weak and colourless imitation of the secondary school curriculum is to fail to realize the great opportunities which such a school can afford for the true education of a special type of child. The various voluntary associations which cater for boys and girls—*e.g.* Scouts and Guides, the Young Farmers' Clubs, and the Youth Service Squads—have shown the educational value of manifold activities in which children are intensely interested. The more progressive central schools are already realizing the value of this kind of work which is pre-eminently suited to the particular type of child with which they deal; and it will gain in importance as the school-leaving age is raised to 15, or, eventually, to 16. All this implies an elasticity of organization which will throw special difficulties upon those who draw up time-tables. But similar problems raised by evacuation have been met and solved. In any case, the child's interests must not be jeopardized by the interests of mere machinery.

We may hope that before long the child who leaves the central school will be able in the day continuation school to develop the interests and skills which have been awakened. Opposition to the raising of the school age is perhaps due to a feeling that it implies an extension of a formal or academic type of education for every one. The central school should do its utmost to demonstrate the untruth of that. It must take its place alongside and not below other forms of post-primary education, but it must make its own specific contribution. To enable it to do this it must have parity of treatment with other 'secondary' schools, and that would entail the outlay of money. No one knows what periods of 'Geddes Axe' depression may lie ahead or how many 'Fisher Act' hopes may be frustrated; but, if we could earmark the equivalent of what is spent in a week or two of war, our problem would be solved. If we can face great sacrifices to preserve freedom, we may well face small ones to implement it.

[2] See A. Greenhough: "The Educational Needs of the 14–15 Group."

GEOGRAPHY AND THE WAR IN THE MIDDLE EAST

By J. H. STEMBRIDGE, Geographical Editor of the Oxford University Press, and formerly Head of the Geography Department at Denstone College; author of *The World-Wide Geographies*, *The New Oxford Geographies*, &c.

THE Middle East may be regarded as the scene of one long historical pageant, and the whole region is dotted with striking memorials of bygone civilizations. Ur of the Chaldees, the birthplace of Abraham, to whom both Jews and Arabs attribute their origin, lies just south of the Euphrates, a hundred miles or so west of Basra; Babylon, the capital of the Chaldean Empire, is some fifty miles south of Baghdad; Nineveh, the seat of the rival Assyrian power, stands on the east bank of the Tigris facing Mosul. Tyre and Sidon recall the Phoenicians; Jerusalem is venerated, not only by Christians and Jews, but also by the adherents of Islam.

A link between the culture and commerce of the Occident and the Orient, the Middle East has from early times been traversed by caravan routes leading from the ports of Syria and adjacent lands, across the desert, to the Tigris-Euphrates Valley and the Persian Gulf.

Its strategic position has made this region one of the world's great battlegrounds. Across it have swept many invading armies—Assyrians, Babylonians, Persians, Greeks, Romans, Arabs, and Crusaders. The Turks, who conquered it in the sixteenth century, held it until the first Great War, when it was wrested from them by British and allied forces, whose successors to-day occupy Syria, Iraq, and Iran (Persia).

After the first Great War, Syria, which under Turkish rule had included Palestine and Transjordan, was divided into its component parts, and these, together with Iraq, were set up as separate states. But their conquerors, instead of annexing these states, agreed to administer them under mandates from the League of Nations. France was given a mandate over Syria: Britain over Palestine, Transjordan and Iraq, the last-named consisting of Mesopotamia together with a strip of steppe-desert to the west.

In 1932 Iraq became an independent state. Its relations with Britain were regulated by the Anglo-Iraq Treaty of Alliance, under which the British were authorized to maintain forces near Basra, and aerodromes in the vicinity of Basra, and at Habbaniyeh.

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Before 1914 Britain and Russia had divided Persia into spheres of influence. In 1919 an Anglo-Persian Agreement established what was to all intents and purposes a British Protectorate over the country. But this Agreement was never implemented, and, with the rise of Persian nationalism under the late Shah, both British and Russian influence waned, only to be replaced in recent years by that of Germany.

With the exception of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley, the region stretching from the Mediterranean east into the Plateau of Iran, and from Caucasia and the Caspian south to the Arabian Sea, consists of mountainous country.

From the Mediterranean littoral of Syria and Palestine, the land rises to a limestone plateau, which drops steeply to a remarkable valley, part of a great trench extending south through the Red Sea into Africa. In Palestine this valley is drained by the Jordan, which flows through Lake Tiberias and the Sea of Galilee to the Dead Sea, whose surface is 1,286 feet below sea-level and whose floor is another 1,300 feet down. The Syrian Hollow—a continuation of the valley—is walled in by the abrupt slopes of Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon. Snows from the crests of these hog-backed ridges feed streams which unite to form the Orontes and the Litani, the former flowing north by Homs and Antioch to the Mediterranean, the latter south and then west through a steep gorge, which leads to the sea between Tyre and Sidon. Road and railway from Beirut climb Lebanon, drop down to the Hollow, and, after leaving Rayak where the line to Aleppo runs north, follow the valley of the Barada, the ancient Abana, to Damascus.

East of the Syrian Hollow and the Jordan Dead Sea Valley the country rises to 2,000 feet in the Syrian Desert, which slopes down to the Euphrates. The desert, a triangular area, based upon the Nefud Desert of Arabia, narrows towards the great bend of the Euphrates, where the river, swinging west in the direction of Aleppo, approaches to within a hundred miles of the Mediterranean.

The broad southern portion of the Syrian Desert—the Great Desert—is virtually waterless. But the northern and narrower portion—the Little Desert—is well supplied with oases, such as those of Rutba and Palmyra, which have served caravans from time immemorial. Rutba, an airport and a stopping-place for trans-desert autobuses plying between Damascus and Baghdad, lies on the oil pipe-line from Iraq to Haifa, the chief port of Palestine. Palmyra commands a pass through a line of hills running from the vicinity of Damascus north-east to Deir-ez-Zor, on the Euphrates. For centuries a great commercial centre, it lay on the route along which Phoenician merchants made their way to Babylon, and, at a later date, it stood on the Roman road to Hit, on the Euphrates. The shortest crossing of the Syrian Desert is that from Aleppo to Meskene, on the Euphrates, where the road runs down the valley through Deir-ez-Zor to Falluja, at which place it crosses the river and turns east to Baghdad.

Mesopotamia—the Tigris-Euphrates trough—lies between the eastern edge of the Syrian desert-plateau and the foot of the mountains that buttress the Plateau of Iran. This trough has always been a great highway: never isolated, always open to flank attack. Upper Mesopotamia (in part ancient Assyria) is a low table-land stretching south as far as an east to west line running through Hit. The great alluvial lowland of Lower Mesopotamia (ancient Babylonia) has been built up of sediment brought down by the Euphrates and the Tigris, whose united stream, the Shatt-el-Arab, is steadily pushing its delta into the Persian Gulf. Into the Persian Gulf also flows the Karun, the only navigable river in Iran, which is linked by a tributary with the Shatt-el-Arab.

Strikingly different from Mesopotamia—in configuration if not in climate, is Iran, a plateau which drops to the Caspian Sea in the north and to the Persian Gulf in the south. The interior consists of a rugged depression into which, from the encircling mountain, drain streams, whose waters irrigate little valleys, or lose themselves in the sands, or spread out to form lakes and swamps, strongly impregnated with salt owing to the great evaporation. Part of this arid area is clad with sparse herbage, but at least a third of Iran is occupied by sandy or stony deserts and saline wastes, quite irreclaimable and sterile.

Over the whole of the Middle East from the Mediterranean to Iran the summers are hot, dry, and brilliantly sunny. The rainfall is confined to the winter months, the amount decreases with increasing distance from the Mediterranean, and its inadequacy is enhanced by the great evaporation. (Compare the annual rainfall at Jaffa, 21 inches, with that at Baghdad, 6·6 inches.)

Relief, and especially climate, as well as other geographical conditions, have had a profound effect on the occupations and character of the people of the Middle East. Apart from townsfolk, they may be divided into the pastoral Bedouin and the fellaheen—those of the ' steppe ' and those of the ' sown ', at variance since man first started to till the land. Neither race nor religion alone accounts for the friction between the nomadic and semi-nomadic Arabs and the Jewish cultivators of Palestine.

In Syria and Palestine, as in other Mediterranean Lands, essential crops, such as cereals, olives, and vines, can be grown without irrigation. The fact that the natural rainfall is sufficient, coupled with the varied topography, favoured the growth of a large number of relatively self-supporting communities, and small countries. The French displayed a shrewd knowledge of geographical conditions when they decided to partition Syria, and to divide it into five miniature States—Syria, Lebanon, Latakia, Jebel Druze, and the Sanjak of Alexandretta. The last named was, however, ceded to Turkey in 1939. But the British did not fare so well when they proposed to set up a Jewish and an Arab State in Palestine, for there were other forces at work in this tiny land.

Very different from Syria and Palestine are conditions in Mesopotamia, where the scanty rainfall makes irrigation necessary even for cereals. Except on a small scale, agriculture involves the control of the rivers and the construction of canals. The latter must be protected from marauding nomads. Their banks must be maintained, and, even more important, their channels must be kept free from silt. All this implies effective control over a large area, and such control can be exercised only by a powerful State.

In the time of the great Empires, Mesopotamia was the granary of the world, a veritable sea of grain from end to end. But in succeeding centuries, when the Mongols and other invaders laid waste the country, the canals were neglected, and, having become filled with silt, were choked with sand, with the inevitable result that the country reverted to desert. To-day if we fly up the Tigris-Euphrates Valley we can clearly see the pattern of innumerable canals, that once supplied water to this thirsty land.

There is, however, a brighter side to the picture. The British, during their occupation (1919–1932) did much towards restoring the irrigation system, and Iraq is now a producer of cotton as well as grain. Moreover, the British facilitated the building of roads and railways, though the last link in the Basra-Baghdad-Bosporus Railway, 1,989 miles long, has only recently been completed.

In Iran, where there are no rivers to compare in importance with the Tigris-Euphrates, irrigation is limited to valleys in the vicinity of the marginal mountains, where snow-fed streams provide water. Thus Teheran, the capital, Tabriz, and other important towns, as well as most of the villages, lie at the foot of mountains. More than a quarter of the 15,000,000 inhabitants of Iran are nomads, who use the wool of their flocks for making rugs and carpets of wonderful colouring and unique design.

The wealth of both Iran and Iraq lies in their oil-fields, which are a great source of profit to their respective governments. The chief centre of the Mosul oil-field is Kirkuk,

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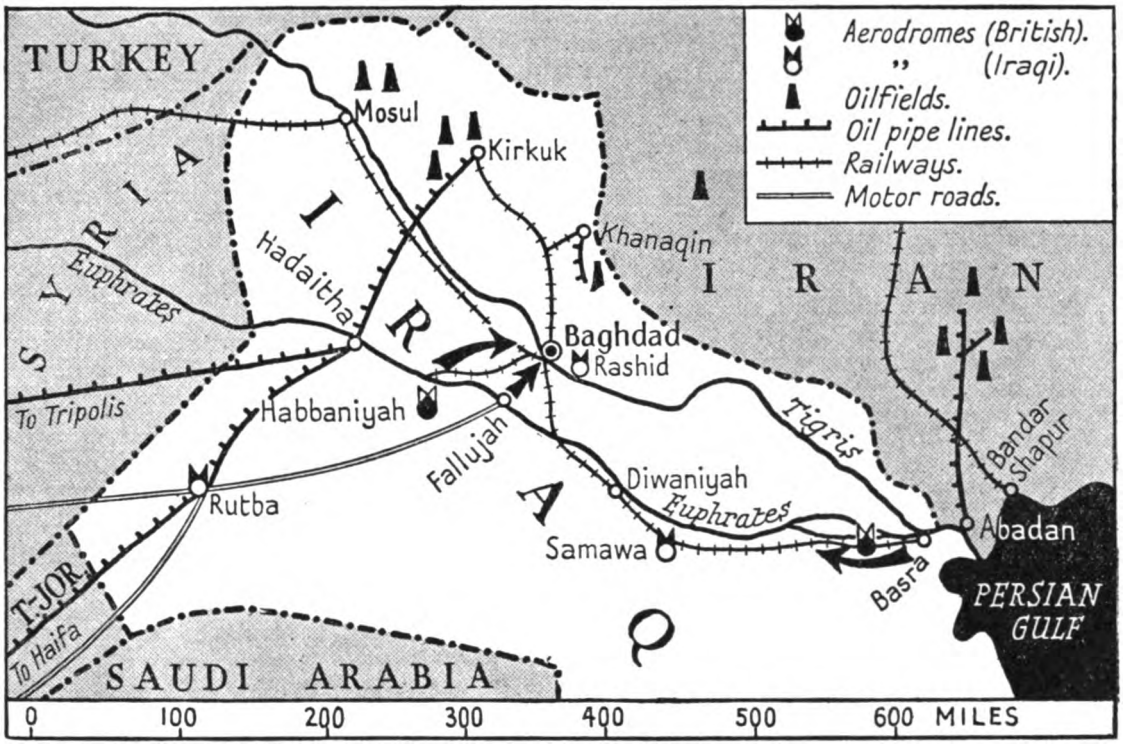

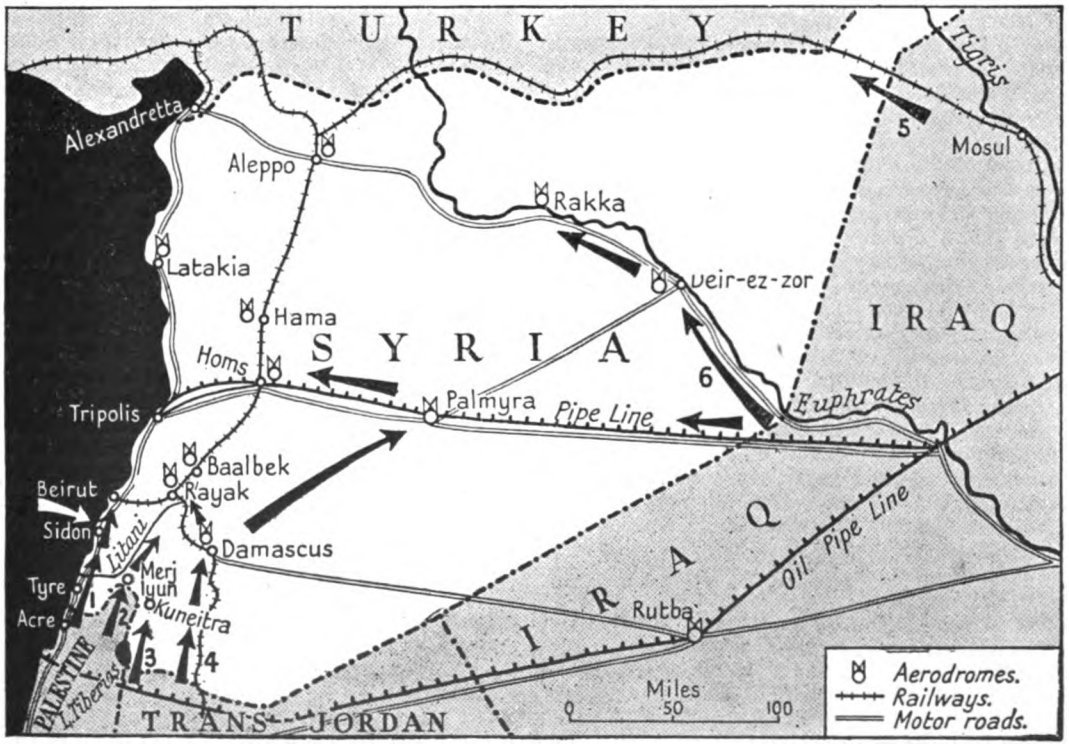

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in eastern Iraq, the terminus of a railway and motor road from Baghdad. From Kirkuk petroleum is piped to Haditha, on the Euphrates, where the line divides, one branch going to Tripoli in Syria, the other to Haifa in Palestine, where there is a large refinery. After the fall of France in June, 1940, the former line was cut. To the south of Khanaqin there is a small oil field, which extends across the border into Iran. At Khanaqin the motor road from Baghdad runs over the frontier to Kermanshah, whence it continues through Hamadan to Teheran.

Iran is the fourth oil-producing country in the world. The Iranian oil-fields lie in the Karun Valley, whence the crude oil is pumped through pipe lines to an enormous refinery at Abadan. This island-port in the Shatt-el-Arab lies midway between Basra and Bandar Shahpur, the southern terminus of the 866 mile Trans-Iranian Railway, which runs through Teheran to Bandar Shah on the Caspian Sea.

Naturally these supplies of oil are of enormous importance to British and allied forces in the Middle East. Equally so would they be to the Germans, for Caucasia, Iran, and Iraq could provide Hitler with all the oil he needs to feed his war machine.

The Middle East Theatre of War covers 850,000 square miles. One end of this enormous land bridge between the Mediterranean and India rests on Russia. The other rests on Egypt and the Suez Canal, whose control is essential to the allies, for otherwise they could scarcely hope to hold Palestine and Syria, and only with difficulty Iraq and Iran.

Even before the German invasion of Russia, the Middle East was of vital importance to the British Empire. For years before the present conflict the Germans were busy undermining British influence in this area. They were not unsuccessful, and with the outbreak of war they redoubled their efforts. In Syria, after the capitulation of France, they were aided by the pro-Nazi Vichy Government; in Iraq by anti-British politicians in Axis pay; in Iran by a host of German Fifth Columnists, whose activities were regarded by the Government with a benevolent eye.

The storm, as we know, broke in Iraq, where, early in April, a pro-German clique overthrew the Government and assumed power. Two weeks later British and Indian troops landed at Basra in accordance with the Anglo-Iraq Treaty of Alliance. Open revolt broke out at the beginning of May, when Iraqi troops unsuccessfully attacked the R.A.F. aerodrome at Habbaniyeh. Meanwhile British troops occupied strategic points in Basra; a column advanced up the Euphrates valley; and air-borne reinforcements were sent to the besieged garrison at Habbaniyeh. The Royal Air Force took the offensive. They bombed a number of Iraqi aerodromes, including that at Rutba, where they forced the garrison to surrender. They also attacked Aleppo, Palmyra, and other Syrian aerodromes, which were being used as bases by the Germans, who were assisting the rebels. The rebellion was quelled on May 31, on which day an armistice was signed in Baghdad. The next day Imperial troops entered the capital, and shortly afterwards occupied Mosul and other strategic centres, including the oil-fields.

Retribution followed in Syria. But, partly because of the mountainous terrain and partly for political reasons, the British advance was relatively slow.

At dawn on June 8, Australian, Indian, and Free French forces, with strong air support, crossed the Syrian frontier from Palestine and Transjordan.

One column advanced along the coast road to Tyre, and thence across the gorge of the Litani River to Sidon, which was captured on June 15 by Australian forces, who then continued towards Beirut. Another column entered Syria from a point near Lake Tiberias, and later struck west from the Jordan Valley along the road to Damascus, on which forces from Transjordan were also advancing along the Amman-Damascus Railway. The capture of Damascus on June 21 opened the way through the Syrian Hollow to Homs, where the line from Tripoli joins the Damascus-Aleppo Railway.

Meanwhile mechanized units began to enter Syria from Iraq. From Mosul one column moved along the Basra-Baghdad-Bosporus Railway towards the Turkish frontier. A second followed the road up the Euphrates Valley to Deir-ez-Zor, which was taken by Indian troops, who then marched on Rakka. Other units took the trans-desert route to Palmyra, which was also the objective of columns advancing across the desert from Damascus. This important aerodrome on the pipe line to Tripoli was captured on July 3.

Hostilities ceased on July 13, when an armistice was signed at Acre (Palestine).

The occupation of Syria, and the crushing of the rebellion in Iraq, somewhat eased the situation in the Middle East, but Iran remained a centre of Axis activities.

The frontiers of Iran adjoin those of British Baluchistan on the east, Turkey and Iraq on the west, and Russia on the north, while its southern shores are washed by the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean. Thus Iran occupies one of the most important strategic positions in the Middle East, added to which, as we have seen, it is a leading producer of oil.

Under increasing German pressure Iran was rapidly becoming a menace to the security of the British Empire and Russia. In spite of repeated protests by Britain and Russia, the Government of Iran refused to expel the German Fifth Columnists, and on August 25, none too soon, allied forces marched into the country.

Imperial troops entered Iran at three points. Leaving Basra at nightfall Indian contingents moved down the palm-fringed Shatt-el-Arab, and, attacking Abadan at dawn, occupied the oil refinery and installations. Others captured Bandar Shahpur, whence they advanced along the Trans-Iranian Railway. Units from Basra, having crossed the Euphrates by pontoon bridges, secured Khoranshah, on the road from Abadan to the Karun Valley oil-field. In the north-east troops advanced from Khanaqin along the motor road to Kermanshah. While these operations were taking place in the south, Russian troops were advancing along a front extending from the Caspian Sea to the Turkish frontier. One column moved along the road and railway to Tabriz, the rail-head, whence the road continues east to Teheran. Another column crossed the north-east frontier of Iran and occupied Meshed.

Iranian resistance to the British and Russian forces was short-lived. Within three days fighting ceased and the allies proceeded to occupy the oil-fields, the Trans-Iranian Railway, the Tabriz-Teheran road, and other vital objectives.

The occupation of Iran has enabled the allied forces in the Middle East to establish a united front. Moreover, it has opened up communications between Russia and the Persian Gulf. With the closing of the Mediterranean-Black Sea route to commercial traffic, the Persian Gulf provides the only sea route by which supplies can reach Russia at all seasons, for Vladivostok, the Pacific terminus of the Trans-Siberian Railway, is icebound from December to April. By the Cape Route to Basra and Bandar Shahpur, supplies from Britain, British territories east of Suez, and the United States can be dispatched to Russia, and the Middle East Theatre of War.

Allied control of the Persian Gulf route is of great value to Turkey, as too is the removal of a menace from her Syrian and Iranian frontiers. She is now less dependent on the goodwill of the Axis states, and so should be more disposed to exercise a friendly, or at least an impartial neutrality, towards Britain and Russia.

The occupation of Syria, Iraq, and Iran has placed the greater part of the Middle East under Allied control. Much is at stake and this enormous region may yet be the scene of decisive battles, for Hitler will doubtless try to emulate Alexander and drive east to India, and south through Syria to Egypt, and beyond. But the effectiveness of British and Russian military co-operation in the Middle East, where geography plays so great a part, is a good omen.

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THE COMENIUS CELEBRATION

By Dr. J. L. PATON, formerly High Master of Manchester Grammar School

THERE is one book which might have been written specially for this occasion, though it is nine years since it was published. It is Dr. R. F. Young's *Comenius in England*. Dr. Young is best known by the historical introductions which he has written for the Consultative Committee's Reports. These place him in the forefront of our writers on the history of education. He is the A. F. Leach of our generation. He is well known among the Czechs. He was a great friend of Masaryk, knew him when he was in London and stayed with him often in Prague. He was a member of the first Diplomatic Legation in the days when the Czech Republic was founded. He is a Doctor of Philosophy of the University at Brno (Brun) founded in honour of President Masaryk.

It was in September, 1641 that Comenius came to England, invited by the newly-elected Parliament of 1641, commonly known as the Long Parliament. Dr. Young has put together in his book all the documents connected with this visit, translated and edited them with introduction and notes. A previous book of his deals with Comenius' plans for the education of native Indians in Virginia and New England—plans which Comenius discussed in London with Hartlib, Robert Boyle, Archbishop Williams, and John Winthrop the younger, son of the Governor of Massachusetts.

The immediate object of his visit, however, was to advise Parliament as to the reform of schools. Only greater matters of immediate urgency intervened. King Charles had already gone to Scotland: then came the massacre in Ireland. Civil war was now inevitable. Comenius was told to wait. While waiting he had time to talk over with his new friends his great scheme of Pansophia, which lay near to his heart. He foresaw the growth of knowledge which would result from the Baconian system of investigation and experiment. He saw the need for central direction and co-ordination of this new activity; how easily there might be overlapping, confusion of terminology and chaos—the need, in effect, of an intellectual G.H.Q. Comenius' mind was above all methodical. There must be a central clearing-house, as it were, and a directive body. The new Atlantis pictured with lavish imagination the House of Solomon. Comenius thought it out in terms of a world university, in which the professors should be the greatest intellects of all nations, working as one team at the classification and homologation of science, having outposts in all civilized countries and corresponding freely with them. Comenius was anxious that the site of this encyclopaedic university should be London, and Parliament had gone so far as to suggest the College of Chelsea. A model of the projected building is to be found in the British Museum. The real outcome of these conferences is to be found in the Royal Society, chartered in 1662—the first of many similar societies or academies in many other countries, which did, from the first, correspond with our Royal Society and with each other, as they still correspond in war-time as well as in peace.

It was this synoptic universal outlook of Comenius' mind which makes it so difficult in a short article to summarize his work. Though his thinking was in terms of all mankind, it was by no means diffuse. The man took all knowledge for his province. The best way to realize his encyclopaedic outlook is to glance through the titles of all his writings. There are 127 in M. W. Keatinge's edition of the Great Didactic. On the same page we have *Seminarium Linguarum et Scientiarum omnium, Schola infantiae* —a book for mothers, dealing with the first six years of childhood, *A Harmony of the Gospels, A Concordance of the Holy Scriptures*, text-books and curricula and time-tables for the elementary school (ages 6–12), the Latin School (12–18), and *Orbis pictus*, said to be the first illustrated book for children.

It was said of Robertson Smith at Cambridge that he specialized on the universe. It was Comenius who showed him how to do it. The very homelessness of his life made him a wanderer. The outbreak of the Thirty Years' War drove him from his homeland. The Treaty of Westphalia, which brought the war to an end, made it impossible for him to return, for the toleration this Treaty secured to Protestants in general discriminated specially against the Moravians.

He claims the right of education for all children. Schools are to be places where all children are to be taught all subjects with all thoroughness, *ubi omnes omnia omnino doceantur*. There was to be no bar of class or poverty. With Milton and contemporary writers education, at any rate of a higher type, was not for *οἱ πολλοί*. Nor were girls to be excluded. The words in which Comenius claims for girls equality of opportunity, he bases on the Divine maxim, "Where God gives capacity, it is man's duty to train it." (The founder of Rugby School left his foundation "for the children of Rugby and Newbold-on-Avon." The question whether girls were legally "children" does not seem to have occurred to the executors of his will). *Omnia*—Latin was no longer to monopolize the curriculum. Things were more important than words. Children should be taught the truth about themselves and about nature, taught at any rate enough to give them a foothold and enable them to learn more for themselves. *Omnino*—the knowledge was not to be vague but thorough, so far as it went, and it was to be objective. If the teacher could not show them a giraffe, he was at any rate to show a picture of it. Comenius worked out the text-books himself. They were quickly translated into twelve of the principle languages of Europe and into Arabic, Persian, Turkish, and Mongolese. They were used in at least half the schools of Europe and in New England.

The spirit of the school was changed. Hitherto the cane or birch had been the tree of knowledge—

"Qui, quae, quod
Fetch me the rod."

The schools had been, as he said, "torture houses of youth." It is significant that in Shakespeare every mention of school or school teacher is redolent of hatred. The teaching profession as a whole has not even now recovered from the stigma of those days. The reaction in our country against the rod has come later than in other lands, but it has been more complete. The present-day relations between teachers and taught would satisfy, they would even gratify, Comenius.

Latin still remained. It was the *lingua franca* of learning and essential to the advancement of learning. But the old method of teaching it wasted as much as ten years without giving scholars any real capacity for understanding Latin or writing it. Comenius halved the school hours—his programme provided four hours a day instead of eight. He found room for mathematics, history, geography, music, and nature study—and yet his pupils did succeed in learning Latin. It was not the Latin of Cicero. Comenius had no special love for the Classics. He did not exclude them. He thought it would be enough if children were given in compendium the substance of their contents. But the Classics were Pagan. He believed in Christian schools. Moreover, Classical Latin had not the vocables necessary for learning in the Baconian sense of the term.

His great function as a reformer of education may best be expressed in his own metaphor. He unbarred the gates. No less than five of his books bear the title *Janua Reserata, Janua linguarum, Janua rerum*, and so on. His part was to remove the bars of ignorance and narrow

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traditions, of sex and class, and darkness, and to open up to all a free and fair chance to be and to do each his best. Education to him was an enlargement, an emancipation. It brings men out from the small roofed-in tenement of self-absorption into the companionship of heaven and the myriad of stars.

We are told he is dull and obvious, his analogies are either obvious or far-fetched. In his endeavour to be systematic and philosophic he will begin everything *ab ovo* and take nothing for granted. But we have to remember the people to whom Comenius spoke were still in the dark ages; their ears were heavy, their eyes purblind, their understanding was gross. He could take nothing for granted.

Not one of his text-books is now in use, but his *Great Didactic* still remains as the first book which formulated the universal principles of instruction and puts all education on a scientific basis.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE SPOKEN WORD

SIR,—I should be grateful if you would allow me to reply to the review in your July issue of my Psyche Monograph, *Vowel Sounds in Poetry, their Music and Tone-Colour*. The investigation described in the monograph, which is the successor of an earlier, more general, examination of the music of poetry, attempted to discover the scientific basis for certain poetic effects which it examined; but it used science only as a means and, as the preface says, "if analysis succeeded appreciation, it was itself succeeded by a deeper and fuller appreciation after the new knowledge gained had sunk below the surface of the mind, which, no longer conscious of it, was yet enriched by it".

Many, although not all, distinguished students of literature dislike the scientific method, and it is no criticism of your reviewer to suggest that she shares this dislike. What is regrettable is that, having failed from insufficient leisure to grasp the thesis of what is admittedly a difficult book, and unarmed with a thorough knowledge of authoritative recent research on vowel resonances, anyone of your reviewer's dignity and reputation did not refrain from comment.

The comments suffer from lack of precision in thought and expression; but, clearly, objection is taken to the use of 'front' and 'back' in the classification of vowels; the adjectives are condemned as "misleading, since it is the overtones and undertones in resonation which chiefly concern the student of verse and speech". Yet 'front' and 'back' are widely used by professional phoneticians; and they were early abandoned in the investigation for 'high' and 'low'; and pitch is closely related to tongue-position: "the progressive rise in pitch was seen to coincide with a progressive movement of the tongue either upwards, as in the articulation of front vowels, or downwards, as in the articulation of back" (p. 54). The most astonishing point here is, however, the apparent implication that the investigation minimizes the importance of overtones. Yet overtones or, more correctly, the two main characteristic regions of resonance in the vowels—undertones are comparatively unimportant—are the *subject* of the scientific section of the investigation, and it is they which in the end offer the explanation of the pleasure derived from the poetic effects under consideration.

Obviously the vowels do not suggest the sense of the words cited in the review—but I nowhere maintained the contrary. The theories actually developed, step by step, as the result of a parallel investigation along two separate lines, are that vowels can be divided into four groups, the high, the low, the deep, and the 'common' (which take on the colour of either of the first two groups if it is dominant), that throughout good poems or 'units' of good poems, one of the first three groups is dominant, and that most poets tend, unconsciously, to use dominant high vowels as a natural medium for the expression of some types of subject, dominant low vowels for on the whole contrasting types, and dominant deep vowels for more intense forms of the contrasting types. The reason evolved for the association in poetry of the members of any group with each other is that one of the two main resonances of each falls within a band of frequencies characteristic of the group; and the suggestion is that in high units a high voice-tone is induced, in low a low voice-tone, and in deep a deep. It is difficult to understand how the reviewer could have failed to grasp these theories. The lines quoted from *Hamlet*, being an example not of a high but of a deep unit, do not disprove but support them.

A weight of detail, possibly more irritating to the investigator than to the reader, was unavoidable if objectivity was to be achieved; but, if lack of space did not prevent it, it would be easy to deal with the reviewer's dismay at the number of vowels used—under a score of different vowels are used in the analyses (*V.*, p. 102), although, owing to the influence of stress, a number of relative strengths are attributed to each—and it would be easy to disprove, for example, the statement about dramatic verse. For the rest, the scientific section of the book is based on and in line with the research done in this country, in European countries and in America, by the greatest and most recent authorities on the subject, to some of whom the author was personally indebted for generous help.

I must apologize for taking so much of your space, but the subject is complicated and criticisms made without adequate consideration demand refutation point by point.

M. M. MACDERMOTT.

SIR,—It was with deep regret that I found in your July number that a book from which as a student of poetry I had derived great enjoyment was condemned by so famous an authority on verse-speaking as Miss Fogerty. Since I have had time to study with concentration a book which she in the press of business dismissed as being in disagreement with the principles on which her own enchanting art is based, I can only hope that a great reputation may not be allowed to weigh against an opinion matured in leisure, until that opinion has been heard and has received equal consideration. Indeed, I cannot believe that Miss Fogerty herself would desire to suppress an explanation of the book which shows it, perhaps, to be less out of harmony with her own ideas than had at first seemed to be the case.

Vowel Sounds in Poetry: Their Music and Tone-Colour, attractive though its title sounds, is not a book for general reading, for it is concerned not with the presentation of ideas but with a description of the method of research. For instance, the investigation necessitated the invention of a system for the accurate measurement of the strengths of vowels, and in the second chapter there is a wealth of detail to explain how these are modified by variations in metrical and sentence stress. This makes tedious reading: one is at first torn between admiration at the sight of such thoroughness, and apprehension at the thought of having to bend one's mind to concentrate on so much detail; but the chapter becomes full of interest when one adopts all these regulations in order to test the theories by a parallel investigation of one's own.

The author found that, in what is accepted as good poetry, passages which may be regarded as units because, broadly speaking, they express a single mood, are units also in sound and have their vowel-themes which are dominated by either 'front' (as they were for convenience called) or 'back' vowels; and that this is evidently a condition on which vowel-music depends. The realization that a relation-

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ship in pitch exists between the members of the 'front' group and also between those of the 'back' led to a study of the characteristic resonances of vowels, and according to the pitch of the main resonances the vowels were placed in a pitch series.

As is usual in the course of research one of the most interesting discoveries came as the result of what appeared to be a contradiction of theory by fact. In spite of the principles just expounded it had been recognized that four lines from *The Ancient Mariner* beginning "A noise like of a hidden brook" were dominated neither by the 'back' nor the 'front' group but by the vowels in *moon, brook, hid, leaf*. The study of resonances revealed that these four vowels have a characteristic resonance of almost, if not quite, the same pitch, and the publication of Sir Richard Paget's *Human Speech* opened the way to the solution of the whole problem of vowel resonances and their significance in the music of poetry. It was observed not only that 'front' vowels (now termed 'high') are related because one of the main resonances of each falls within a narrow band of high frequencies and that 'back' vowels (now termed 'low') are related because one of the main resonances of each falls within a band of lower frequencies, but also that the vowels of *moon, brook, hid, leaf*, and some others, fall within another deep band.

Later, since one of the two main resonances of the vowels in *hat, but, bird, the*, was seen to be on the fringe of the low and the other on the fringe of the high band, and since the results of experiments conducted through the kindness of Dr. Eccles and other investigators confirmed the impression that the two resonances of each of these vowels are comparatively equal in strength, it was seen that the vowels may be regarded as 'common' and take their places in either a high or low theme, thus raising still higher the percentage by which the main group preponderated in the passages of good poetry analysed, and confirming an impression arrived at by attentive listening. Thus, far from being based on a superstitious "classification of vowels according to the articulatory action of the tongue" (indeed, for the purposes of this monograph the physiological processes of sound production need not be discussed) the whole success of this investigation turns upon the pitch of the main resonances of vowels.

By means of this 'band' theory of resonances and the careful analysis of hundreds of examples of what is accepted as good poetry, it was found that this consists of units dominated by vowels of the high, low, or deep band and that the different levels (not, as the reviewer suggests, the separate sounds) are characteristic of subtle shades of feeling. The classification, although wide, is of course tentative, but is sufficient to prove that in a more intricate manner than was hitherto demonstrated sound echoes sense and that poetry is in fact "the immortal shorthand of the soul".

The quotation from *Hamlet*:

> "Seems, Madam, nay it is, I know not seems,
> 'Tis not alone my inky cloak, good mother",

far from disproving the theory, upholds it, for it is an example of one of those rare themes dominated by vowels belonging to the deep band which, according to the author, are found to express (among other things) deep sorrow.

In the course of these researches the latest results of phonological science were checked and combined in order to form a sound basis for theory, and they are conducted with such minute attention to detail that on re-reading one finds that one's objections have been anticipated and met. They are valuable and exciting because they open the way to a far more intelligent understanding of the music of poetry, and because they turn the light of scientific truth upon the insincerity of bad poets; for they reveal the secret of our discomfort in reading inferior work, showing that, whereas true poets express their ideas in words whose vowels are harmonious among themselves and whose tone fits their meaning, bad poets lack sureness of touch, their style is not the living incarnation of their mood, and their work tends to show no dominance by high, low, or deep vowels, or to show a ludicrously strong dominance, or the dominance by inappropriate sound which shocks us, not because it is new (for this is often a sign of original work), but because it is inept and nerveless.

Modern art is teaching us that the artist's finest intuitions are incapable of translation into thought, and are transmitted through the senses to the subconsciousness, going deeper than thought itself. Our attention is directed to the need to study that fascinating and mysterious thing, artistic form. Any attempt such as this, therefore, to understand the medium of the poet, and quicken our awareness of the infinitely subtle music of poetry, must claim our sympathetic attention, for the foundations of this part of criticism have hitherto been comparatively neglected. When a fragment quarried out with infinite patience is brought to us it would be folly to reject it without close scrutiny, and this one, if I am not mistaken, has the gleam of truth and must finally be accepted as part of the building.

It is a pity that a work so thorough in detail should be marred by lapses on the part of the proof-reader: the reference to Nod on page 82, note 2, should read p. 110, not 123; the name of W. A. Aikin is twice misspelt on p. 71 (though correct in the bibliography); an acute accent is missing on p. 18, note 1, *Académie*; and there is a more serious misprint on p. 68, line 6, where the sound in 'all', not 'the', is obviously meant.

J. McCLURE.

Brigton, near Newton Stewart,
Wigtownshire.

SIR,—I think it would be unfortunate if the reference to *Vowel Sounds in Poetry* by M. M. Macdermott (Psyche Monograph No. 13) in the article on "The Spoken Word" in your July issue should be allowed to pass without comment.

Research work on the border-line between two specific subjects of study is always difficult, but it is extremely valuable and interesting. It requires special qualifications and it deserves all the encouragement it can be given. Miss Fogerty dismisses the contribution of the Monograph in a way which seems to me unfortunate, and her references to the scientific side of the work suggest a complete absence of any first-hand knowledge of modern scientific methods of investigation or of their results. I am not defending Miss Macdermott's conclusions: they lie outside of my province; but she has, in my judgment, made a praiseworthy attempt to appreciate the scientific method of approach and to apply it to her study.

To say that "the ear method of research properly applied gives far better results than the mechanistic" is to beg the whole question. Both methods of research "properly applied" must yield identical results, and, if at present they do not, then they will be reconciled only as a result of attempts like that which Miss Macdermott has made.

Emmanuel College,
Cambridge.

ALEX. WOOD.

THE FUTURE OF THE PRIVATE SCHOOL

SIR,—With what purpose was the letter on "The Future of the Private School" written by "Artium Magister" in your August number? He seems to have been unfortunate in his apparently slight acquaintance with independent schools: "hopeless teaching, hopeless discipline" and so much that is "all wrong". It is quite easy to find a few black sheep in any profession, even in the Church and in Medicine, but from that fact we do not deduce that the whole flock is tainted. Is he in a position to threaten us with extinction, does he want to reform us or is he an inspired prophet issuing a stern warning to an errant tribe? The

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particular instance of "references" which he cites is despicable; every one would condemn it and every one would rejoice if the culprit got his deserts, but does he insinuate that this is a typical example of a common practice? As to the question of salaries, a leading educational agent assures me that notices of vacancies are regarded as confidential and are sent out as 'private' communications; the collection of 500 does credit to your correspondent's perseverance. Is there not an influential body known as the Assistant Masters' Association, whose membership is not confined to State schoolmasters, which is always ready to deal with cases of illegality or injustice? All of these cases do not arise in independent schools. The Independent Schools Association and others equally concerned do not exist to bolster up inefficiency; they would welcome sympathetic inspection and are even anxious that unsatisfactory schools should be eliminated; but they claim, in accordance with the report of the Departmental Committee on Private Schools, "that private schools deserve a place in the national system of education . . . that there are many which are excellent and the majority are above serious reproach". No one throws stones at a tree which is bearing no fruit, so I suppose even "Artium Magister" is prepared to admit that the tree is not completely barren. I venture to believe that if he knew a little more about its quality, his unsolicited condemnation would be less wholesale.

F. J. WHITBREAD,
Chairman of Council,
The Independent Schools Association, Incorporated.
160 Ember Lane, Esher.

THE CHURCHES AND THE CHILDREN

SIR,—Recent discussions concerning religious education have shown that the old difficulty that existed throughout the nineteenth century, though much more moderately expressed, has not died down. 'Simple Bible teaching' on the one hand, and 'definite' *i.e.* doctrinal religious instruction on the other, still have their respective defenders. The position of the former has been strengthened by agreed syllabuses, and the position of the latter by attempts to bring doctrine down to the child's level, but the two opposed principles are still in evidence. Indeed, if we had to wait until the believers in the two principles had entirely composed their differences, it is hard to see how 'the religious difficulty' could ever disappear from the schools. The chief hope of its disappearance comes, not from complete agreement about questions of doctrine, but from the completely unbiased study of the child, the innocent cause of all this turmoil. In a word, the child psychologists come to the assistance of the distracted theologians.

Nowhere has the point been put more cogently than by the Bishop of Liverpool, in a recent letter to *The Church Times*. Dr. David, who in this matter has the advantage of being an old teacher, is well aware that in our time the centre of gravity in all education has changed. The child is the deciding factor, and the child must be taught according to his stage of development. When he is young it is not formulated doctrine that he needs. Doctrine comes later. This, says Dr. David, "has created a preparatory stage on which the churches can build their own full doctrinal instruction later on. Thus the whole question is taken out of the reach of theological discussion and is set where it can be handled by practical teachers in peace".

The editor of *The Expository Times* has done good service in drawing special attention to Dr. David's letter, and in persuading him to contribute an article which contains a fuller statement of his views. Dr. David suggests that the methods now practised by our best-trained teachers point to an elementary stage of religious instruction into which formulated doctrine should not, and actually does not, enter. He concludes that at that stage "the issue between 'simple Bible teaching' and 'definite (*i.e.* doctrinal) instruction' is no longer a live one". This amounts to saying that the attempt to teach religion to children by means of catechism is futile. "The formula is there, but in the teacher, not in the lesson in which he conveys its foundations to the child". Of course the child may be made to "learn his catechism." What he will really learn is "words, words, words". Dr. David would defer doctrines—the things that divide—until they can be "explained to our young people in the senior classes of Sunday Schools, in Guilds, Bible Classes and Study Circles, at least so far as to make them sincere and intelligent members of the religious body into which they have been born".

In pursuance of the same theme *The Expository Times* (April, 1941) draws attention to Canon A. R. Browne-Wilkinson's new book *The Teaching of the Church Catechism*. The author, whose work in the cause of religious teaching is well known, says that his book "is intended to serve the needs of members of the higher forms of secondary schools, students in training colleges and in parochial classes, and their teachers" (I assume that he refers to church secondary schools and training colleges). Thus far *The Expository Times* approves of the book, because, although a catechism "embodies in intellectual forms the theology of an epoch", yet it may be of value after the period of childhood is past. The last part of the book, however, leaves the reviewer in doubt whether Canon Browne-Wilkinson is so fully convinced as the Bishop of Liverpool of the unwisdom of making children learn the catechism.

Finally, let it be understood that the question here raised is no quarrel between the theologian and the psychologist. It is much more important. It relates to a difference between the adult and the child. There seems solid ground for hope that in this matter of the earliest stage of religious training the clergy and ministers of all denominations will do now what they ought to have done long ago—allow a little child to lead them.

T. RAYMONT.
Furze Cottage,
Carbis Bay, Cornwall.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

SIR,—Two articles, both by clergymen, in your present issue, deal with "religious education." Neither of them faces the real difficulty that exists in regard to this question. The Rev. Wallace develops his argument on the basis that religious knowledge must be taught in as thorough and as satisfactory a way as any other subject. But the real difficulty is that religion is *not* like any other subject at all.

The unique thing about religious knowledge is that educated and informed people are in sharp and fundamental disagreement about it. There is no dispute, in educated circles, as to the main truths of geography or chemistry. Nobody gets hot and bothered because his children are taught the Atomic Theory or because they are taught to disbelieve in phlogiston. But when you come to religion, there is dispute and doubt all along the line, not merely as between Christians and Rationalists, but between different groups of Christians themselves (Catholics and Protestants, Anglicans and Nonconformists, &c.). It is useless to pretend that these controversies have been settled or are ever likely to be.

In a word, the difficulty is that everybody is more or less agreed as to what shall be taught under the heading 'Physics' or 'Literature' but that nobody is really agreed as to what should be taught under the heading 'Religious Knowledge.'

It might seem that the best solution to this would be to leave the various religious organizations free to teach their own religion as they think fit, without interference or competition from the secular State, more particularly as the established Churches obviously possess ample financial and other means to do so. So long as they are able to insist, however, on having their doctrines taught at the public

(*Continued on page 428*)

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expense, then so long must they be prepared to put up with the limitations of which Mr. Wallace, with every justification from his own point of view, complains.

Mr. Standen warns us against the desire " to regiment the mind of a child into that particular point of view which seems desirable ". But, after all, what is teaching the Christian Creed to children but precisely that ? Why will clergymen persist in arguing on the entirely false basis that their doctrines are universally accepted ? Are they really unaware of the growing number of educated and sincere people who have come to reject those doctrines entirely and of the far greater number who, whilst not definitely rejecting them, have lost all real interest ?

The unquestioning acceptance of Christian doctrine is something which can no longer legitimately be taken for granted. Is there any real justification, for example, in teaching children that Christ said a certain thing when we know that the most highly respected Christian scholars have conclusively demonstrated that it is highly doubtful if Christ really said it at all ?

Respectable English folk have developed a kind of ostrich attitude to facts which they find unpleasant. And nowhere is this more apparent than in matters of religion. In a world in which the growing knowledge of science, of Biblical scholarship and historical investigation and cultural honesty and candour all combine to question, with increasing insistence, the very fundamentals of the Christian Faith, we still find that the clergy persist in discussing their doctrines and beliefs as if there was not the slightest breath of scepticism or dissent in any part of the whole civilized world !

J. STEWART COOK.

Crossways, Osborne Road,
Windsor, Berks.

CHILDREN'S READING

SIR,—I have been told that requisitions of books for children's reading presented by teachers to public libraries often show a lack of understanding of the interests of children to-day, and knowledge of recent suitable publications. The lists are too frequently compiled from the teachers' recollections of what they read, or were told to read, when they were young. The conservatism which makes us cling to our own nursery and schoolroom favourites is a harmless enough self-indulgence, but may become dangerous if it causes us, as teachers of English, to miss our great opportunity to guide children's leisure reading. It is probable too that sometimes we foist upon our pupils, not books which we really enjoyed reading, but those which, in obedience to the suggestion of our own elders, we felt we were expected to enjoy.

It may seem too much to be asked, in these days of small leisure, to keep in touch with modern publications, but a stroll through a bookshop, a glance at a publisher's or a library catalogue are often sufficient to give ideas to receptive minds. The county or city librarian is generally a friend in need whose help is not always asked. He has even better opportunities than the teacher of observing children's unsupervised choice.

But the problem goes deeper than lack of leisure. We may ask ourselves whether the future teacher is likely to develop keen and catholic tastes. In the fifth form he takes School Certificate, studying a few set books, often remote from his adolescent experience, and answering questions which require little more than a close knowledge of the text. In Form VI he either takes Higher Certificate English, and acquires information about what other people have written on writers whom he is too immature to appreciate ; or he does English as a neglected extra, or not at all. The brief and busy training college period is usually inadequate to counteract the habits of mind already formed, and as a result the teacher starts his career honestly convinced that it is his duty to impose a conventional taste upon his pupils —a taste which year by year becomes more out of date. Thus we get the present state of culture—in school the classics, the good, dull books—out of school the fourpenny novelette.

One can only assert once more the vital importance of choosing the English syllabus in schools and colleges to suit the interest and age of the pupil, and encouraging independent judgment rather than imposing standards of taste.

MARGARET DIGGLE.

Houndshill Guest House,
Banbury Road,
Stratford-on-Avon.

EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

SCHOOL CHILDREN OF THE U.S.S.R.

By L. S. ELIOTT, M.A.

PERHAPS some of us have been thinking of the school children of the U.S.S.R. We wonder how they are faring while their fathers and older brothers are fighting, and while the mothers and older sisters of some are engaged in making munitions.

Of the 35,000,000 boys and girls attending school in the vast area covered by the Soviet Republics, a large number of those in the four-year and seven-year schools will be in summer camps under the supervision of teachers, for all who wish have the opportunity of spending the long summer holiday in camp, where sports, craft-work, music and dramatics are organized. The older boys and girls from the three top forms of the ten-year schools are less likely to spend their summer in camp, unless they live far east where war has yet scarcely touched their lives.

Though it is difficult to get direct information about the boys and girls of the U.S.S.R. just now, we can judge from the enthusiasm of Soviet Russia for education and the care of the children, that all will be done that can be to protect the young boys and girls from close proximity with the war.

Education has been universal and compulsory since 1930. Hundreds of thousands of schools have been built, many of them very fine buildings architecturally, with cinemas and theatres attached. There are three types of schools at present—four-year or elementary ; seven-year, which include the four-year course and take pupils three years beyond, called incomplete secondary schools ; and the ten-year schools in which a child can receive the whole of his school education. The aim of Soviet Russia is that every school shall become a ten-year school and every child of the U.S.S.R. shall receive the ten-year course. Every effort is being made to reach this goal. Many millions of children between 3 and 7 attend nursery schools, and the provision of these was rapidly increasing up to the outbreak of war.

The subjects to be learned, and the hours to be spent on each, and the homework to be done at each stage are laid down exactly by the Council of Commissars of Education, and these regulations must be strictly adhered to throughout the U.S.S.R. with the exceptions of the Republics not speaking Russian as the native language. For these schools Russian becomes the first foreign language. Text-books, apparatus, and all equipment are standardized and provided by the Government. Though these arrangements may seem fettering and possibly repressive to initiative, they have their advantages and in practice do not preclude the human and individual elements which are considered of first importance in the U.S.S.R.

No physical punishment is allowed and very little

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punishment of any kind. If a child is a "disorganizer" the teacher must look for the causes. Perhaps the time-table he is following is not suited to his temperament; perhaps his home circumstances are not helpful to his right development. The Dalton Plan, projects, intelligence tests are all forbidden, chiefly because they may tend to lessen the teacher's direct and human touch with each child.

It is the teacher's duty to give the children a happy full life. Excursions, attendance at near-by cinemas, if the school has not one of its own, and attendance at theatres are arranged; dramatics, out-of-school hobbies, and societies are encouraged. Great care is taken of health. Hot meals are provided; there are rest times, and careful observation of the pupils to prevent overpressure.

Great importance is attached to the regular testing of the pupils' progress. Examinations, uniform throughout the country, are set to each grade at the end of the school year. Much trouble is taken to mark the pupil's papers on a uniform plan, and finally the results are scaled as follows: excellent, good, fair, poor, very poor. The pupils reaching only the last two standards do not qualify for promotion, but they are given the chance of being examined again at the end of the holidays, after having received careful individual coaching at a summer camp. Though much importance is placed on these results, they must not involve undue strain. This is laid down in the following instruction. "The examinations must be conducted in an atmosphere precluding all nervousness on the part of the children." Is not this a very human touch? How is it achieved, we wonder?

It will be gathered from the above that very high and varied demands are made on the teachers. This is certainly true, but it is true, too, that teachers are held in great honour and regard by the Russians, and every effort is made to pay them generous salaries.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS OF TURKEY

By Major G. M. COOMBS

AFTER the Turkish Revolution following the Great War, the new Republican Government under Kemal Atatürk began to Westernize the nation with almost Draconian discipline.

At the beginning of the period of reconstruction, education was in a chaotic state. Only a skeleton system of rudimentary character was in use by the Ministry of Education, and nearly all instruction had a religious objective. Moslem theological colleges (*medressés*) gave training which was both obscure and out of date, and taught in Arabic and Persian. In the villages, the schools were controlled by the Mosques, and the instruction was of the most elementary character. The larger towns and cities depended on foreign schools, with their diverse systems. A large proportion of the population was illiterate.

The Republic, in its reorganization of the country, succeeded, in the space of fifteen years, in creating a new uniform, lay, and modern educational system. Religious schools have either been abolished or fitted into the State pattern, and the *medressés* replaced by the theological faculty of the University of Istanbul. Generally, the Continental European practice is followed, but it has been modified to suit the needs of a young progressive country, of isolated districts of Anatolia, large cities such as Ankara, Istanbul, and Smyrna, and to meet a new demand for trained industrial personnel for the fast developing manufactures.

Primary education, free and compulsory, starts at the age of 7, and continues for five years. This period is, however, cut down to three years in the peasant villages. A further three years' course follows in the Middle School, and then another of similar length in the lycée, where, in the last year, the literary and scientific branches of the curriculum are differentiated. The primary schools are co-educational, as a general rule. There are two Universities, at Istanbul and Ankara, and a third will shortly be functioning at Van near the Iranian boundary. The faculties comprise economics, liberal arts, science, law, theology, and medicine, with attached colleges of dentistry and pharmacy. At the middle school, lycée, and university stages, institutions exist for specialized training in Government service, engineering, commerce, forestry, agriculture, and the trades.

The difficulties in developing this complete scheme have been enormous. In the initial stages, there was a dearth of teachers, buildings, books, and trained administrators. The Training Colleges and University of Istanbul were unable to provide adequate staff for the schools, and it was necessary to call in graduates of the school of civil servants (*Mülkiye*). Foreign professors were employed in the universities and research institutes, and graduates of the lycées in the primary schools. The shortage of teachers, though less acute, still persists.

Buildings presented another problem, and schools are still overcrowded. Many are housed in old structures adapted for the purpose. New buildings have, however, been constructed in large numbers in standardized types. Some of the recently built Institutes of Higher Education, such as the Agricultural Institute and the Ismet Inonu Institute for Girls at Ankara, are models of educational architecture, and splendidly equipped.

Great difficulty was experienced in the provision of books and libraries when, in 1928, Kemal Atatürk suddenly abolished the Turkish script and replaced Arabic by Latin characters. The immediate result was to make the educated population illiterate. Newspaper proprietors were faced with the loss of their reading public. This they overcame by reducing newsprint, using large characters, and illustrating by pictures. It was a matter of re-educating the adult population. It took five years for the circulation to recover, but to-day over 100,000 copies of journals are sold in Istanbul alone. Once the newspapers in the new script had made headway, school text-books followed, and, subsequently, scientific treatises and literary works. The change of script not only facilitates the acquisition of the Turkish language by foreigners, but also helps Turkish students themselves to learn Western languages. Particularly has it helped the Turkish people to break with a Moslem tradition which for so long retarded their development. The Turk is now identified as a European.

In the great campaign against illiteracy, the small isolated villages of Anatolia for long proved a big stumbling-block. The difficulty was eventually overcome by giving special courses to peasant conscript soldiers as well as to civilians, and then sending them out to found the village schools. Owing to the necessities of the work on the land—for the majority of the people are peasants—the minimum course in the primary schools in the country districts was reduced to three years.

The curriculum in all schools is a uniform one, and comprises instruction in the Turkish language, literature, history, geography, and civics. The medium of instruction in these subjects is of course Turkish, and the Ministry of Education appoints the teachers. Other subjects can be taught in a foreign language. English, French, and German are the major Western languages learned in the middle schools and the lycées. Many foreign schools still exist, maintaining their position by the excellence of the language instruction.

The Turkish Government in 1934 began a five-year plan of industrialization to develop the resources of the country to enable it, as far as possible, to be economically independent of foreign countries. Textile, cellulose, glass, chemical, and mining industries were established, and a great demand for trained industrial personnel was experienced. Foremost was that for engineers. First, the Military College of Engineering at Istanbul was reorganized, and controlled by the Ministry of Public Works. On the conclusion of the six-years' course, graduates are taken into

(*Continued on page 432*)

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the State service. Many, however, have received additional training in the factories of the industrial countries of Western Europe. The Robert College at Istanbul provides a rather more general course extending over four years, teaches in English, and trains students to take their place in the new industrial development of Turkey. Courses in science and technology are held at the University of Istanbul itself, and recently a school of chemical engineering has been established there.

The first purpose of the nine trade schools is to produce skilled manual workers. At about 13 years of age, a pupil may elect to go to a trade school instead of a middle school, but he is compelled to continue attendance until he reaches the age of 18. In the first two years, general education is continued, and then technical instruction follows. Many of the new textile and leather factories offer apprenticeship courses. The centre of the coal-mining industry at Zonguldak possesses a large mining school. Istanbul has a college of forestry. The revival of agriculture has led to the erection of several new agricultural institutes, the chief of which is at Ankara, the new capital. Foreign specialists are employed to teach technical subjects, but they have to train Turkish assistants who eventually take over the work.

The people of the new Turkey have shown a great desire for knowledge, and the State has found it desirable to found a national organization whereby every citizen who has not attended a public educational institution may acquire the minimum knowledge and culture deemed indispensable. Thus the " People's Houses " have been formed in all the provincial capitals. Every Turkish citizen is eligible for membership. Their activities are very wide, and include languages and literature, physical culture, appreciation of art, of the drama and of music. All these Houses take part in the national sports, which are controlled by the Sports Association, besides organizing their own athletic meetings.

Women are completely emancipated under the new régime. They are now regarded as equal to men, with full political rights and opportunities for entering the service of the State or the professions. The peasant woman still forms the foundation of the nation, and shares her husband's labours. But the townswomen are no longer the chattels of their masters, living in seclusion, but free to choose their own careers.

NEW MEDIA

SCHOOL BROADCASTS—" HOW WE USE THEM "

By R. S. MILES

TO my mind the most striking fact about this pamphlet is that it gives the lie to the idea that radio can replace the teacher. It is very evident that the use of wireless lessons without very intensive work by the teacher before and after the broadcast are valueless. The teacher is the essential link in the scheme and his job is more than merely keeping order or writing words on the blackboard during the broadcast. He must use the material in many ways —particularly those which have been suggested by the children themselves—and the pamphlet gives an excellent idea of the diverse ways in which children want to use the broadcasts.

Such work demands very great efforts and knowledge on the part of the teacher—far more than when he is pursuing a syllabus of his own construction. There are thirty reports and they make one wish that there were three thousand. Indeed, here is suggested a most fruitful field for educational research. No doubt the Central Council for School Broadcasting have their records, but these reports indicate that much real educational research could be done by a student for the degree of M.A. or a higher one if given access to records at the B.B.C. and into schools. Such work would give definite direction to this new aid to teachers.

These reports indicate, very forcibly, how the children are often stimulated to their own activities, for example the dramatic " follow-up " reported in the Junior English Course. One interesting report from a Senior Girls' School tells how a class of " unbookish " girls were stimulated to thought and activities by a talk " About Advertisements ". In the travel-talks reports there is a remark about the handicap suffered through the lack of illustrated pamphlets. There is no doubt that they contributed largely to the success of school broadcasts, and the Council for School Broadcasting might do a valuable temporary service by indicating in what text-books and collections suitable pictures are to be found. It is interesting to note that only one use of combined radio and film is recorded.

There is one extraordinary report from a Central School in rural Wales : " Soldiers from a unit stationed near to the school attended for the broadcasts on current affairs. After the broadcast discussions followed, in which soldiers and children took part freely. If a particular soldier's experience promised to help towards an understanding of the subject, he was persuaded to talk at length."

Reports from schools of all types are included and it is to be hoped that this is the first of a series of what would be very stimulating pamphlets. As Mr. Chuter Ede says in the foreword, such publications as this enable teachers, cut off from each other in war-time, to ascertain what others are doing. The pamphlet is to be obtained from the Central Council for School Broadcasting, Bedford College for Women, Regent's Park, London, N.W. 1.

TOPICS AND EVENTS

NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

THE third conference of the New Education Fellowship to be held this year took place at St. Hilda's College, Oxford, on August 21–26. Prof. Fred Clarke, in his opening address, said that in the reconstruction of the world Britain would inevitably hold the key position, and moral demands would be made upon the British people greater than any made in the past five or six centuries. The hope of the world was here. In accepting our right to freedom we must be sure that we were prepared to accept the responsibilities which freedom entailed. We had to realize that human values could only be sustained by human beings, and that the values for which we stood had to be achieved in our individual lives.

The purpose of the conference was to contribute to our understanding of the role of education in a planned democracy. Its programme comprised three courses of lectures. The first, by Dr. Karl Mannheim (London School of Economics), was on " Human Nature and the Social Order ". The second and third applied a sociological approach to the problems of education : Mr. J. A. Lauwerys (Institute of Education, London University) studied recent educational advances in the U.S.A. in terms of the changing social and economic conditions, while Dr. H. G. Stead (Chief Education Officer, Chesterfield) dealt with the English scene and its problems.

Dr. Mannheim said that the problem of human nature and the social order always cropped up afresh at times of great change. It was important to grasp the distinctive

(*Continued on page 434*)

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character of human, as opposed to animal, behaviour. Human behaviour, not being limited to the patterns of fixed instincts, had great flexibility and varied widely under the influence of differing types of society and social institutions. Thanks to differences of environment, education, and social heritage, there were great differences of behaviour pattern between both individuals and groups. The management of the conflicts which result and the achievement of individual adjustment were important tasks of social work and education.

To set the individual and society over against one another as independent opposites was to misread the position. Human behaviour always had the two aspects, individual and social, and the solution of human problems required constant attention to both. Moreover, man did not live in society as such, but in smaller groups of which there were innumerable different kinds. Dr. Mannheim analysed one important group, the family, and traced its changing functions from pre-industrial times to the present day.

It was important to recognize the effects on social life of changing economic techniques, and to disentangle the effects of capitalism, the division of labour, the mechanization of work, and urbanization, which were not one and the same thing. It was these comparatively recent developments which had created a problem of leisure. We had seen leisure organized by the state in totalitarian countries, and commercially exploited elsewhere. In a planned democracy neither of these would do; what was needed was the presentation of opportunity, together with the guidance which a well-conceived education for leisure could give.

Mr. Lauwerys drew attention to the close interrelations between school and society in the United States. This was natural in a country where one task of education was to weld diverse elements into a nation, and it led to a difference of emphasis in American education. The problems of personal and social living were regarded as subjects suitable for study in school, and the attainment of satisfying human relationships was a conscious educational objective. The absence of ancient and deeply-rooted traditions made it also natural to Americans to experiment boldly and introduce novel subjects, as well as to make eager use of new technical devices. A great deal of useful pioneer work had been done in school and college, as well as in the sphere of youth welfare, from which we could learn. The discussion of educational theories was very vocal in the United States. It might be the case that in America theory was better than practice, and in England practice better than theory. But we should do well to pay attention to what was being thought there, because the discussion of theories went hand in hand with much serious research and experiment.

Dr. Stead's course applied to English education the sociological ideas discussed in the first course—such ideas as the formation of behaviour patterns, the management of conflicts, the problem of leisure, the role of the family. Educational practices and institutions had social origins, into which we ought to inquire in order to understand their original functions. Only then, in terms of function, could we set about reconstruction. We had, in England, to reckon with a long tradition and with a tendency to cling to tradition. We needed to disentangle what was merely traditional from what had a function to fulfil at the present day. We also needed a great deal more research: there were many points on which we simply did not know.

The present moment was a challenge to education to be creative—to break away and see how far ahead we could go. In addition to research, we needed to develop a much closer co-operation between the school and other social agencies, to overhaul our administration and the organization of our schools, and to provide a more satisfactory training for teachers. In particular, teachers (like other people who have to deal with human beings) should be equipped with the best available knowledge of the facts concerning human behaviour and of the elements that make up the social milieu.

Board of Education Publications.—*Circular* 1561 gives details of the scheme by which the Ministry of Food will arrange for school canteens, residential schools, and hostels for children to obtain supplies of dried separated milk. An appendix to the *Circular* gives guidance on the storage and use of dried separated milk powder. The Scottish Education Department's *Circular* 203 deals with the same subject.

Circular 1562 is on the subject of evening classes. It refers to the suggestions and advice which were contained in *Circular* 1526, and to the experiment made in certain areas last winter of carrying something by way of educational activities into the larger shelters.

Circular 1563, "Government Evacuation Scheme Records", states that the Ministry of Health have asked the Board to cooperate in compiling and maintaining a standard form of record of all evacuated unaccompanied children who are provided with board and lodging under official arrangements. The co-operation is desired of all local education authorities and of teachers in schools under their jurisdiction, whether their areas are classified as reception, neutral, or evacuation. The *Circular* gives details of the work which it is desired that teachers should undertake. As the work is outside the normal scope of a teacher's duties, the Ministry of Health have agreed that payment at the rate of 25s. per 100 children may be claimed by any teacher who has to complete forms in respect of twenty or more children at any one time. *Ministry of Health Circular* 2475 and *Memorandum E.V.* 14 set out the details of the scheme.

Administrative Memorandum No. 316 urged local education authorities and school governors to keep Schoolboy Harvest Camps in being for an additional week or two to meet the continued need for harvest help.

Administrative Memorandum No. 317 states that, as rates in respect of school premises used for fire-service purposes are now to be reimbursed by the Exchequer, the Board will no longer take into account for grant any expenditure in respect of rates on school premises taken over for this purpose.

Administrative Memorandum No. 318, "State Bursaries in Science", says that the prospective need for men and women trained in radio and in engineering requires the award of more bursaries, and it has therefore been decided to lower the minimum age for applicants. The Board of Education are now prepared to receive applications from candidates born on or after January 1, 1924, but not later than June 30, 1924, and to award bursaries to those who are found to have reached a sufficient standard in the Higher Certificate Examinations in physics and in mathematics. It is intended that these younger candidates shall be left at the universities and technical colleges for two years.

Administrative Memorandum No. 319 describes the items in the pool of equipment required in canteens which the Ministry of Food has established in connexion with British Restaurants. Arrangements have now been made between the Board of Education and the Ministry whereby the Ministry will, where possible, accept orders from local education authorities for equipment included in this pool.

Memorandum No. 27 in "The Schools in War-time" series asks schools to play an active part in the harvesting of blackberries and other wild fruit. Schools organizing blackberry picking should get in touch with their fruit preservation centre as soon as possible, or to the secretary of the County Federation of Women's Institutes (whose addresses are given on the leaflet), or to the local Food Office.

Education and Unemployment.—At a Youth Rally in Lancaster Lord Soulbury explained that he had accepted the invitation to address the gathering when he was President of the Board of Education and stated that education had a very direct bearing upon his work at the

(*Continued on page* 436)

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Assistance Board; for, if adequate educational provision was not made for the young, the Board would, in due course, have to carry a heavier load of responsibility for the indigent and needy amongst the old. He was certain that a large number of cases which he was called on to help would never have required it if they had had a more prolonged schooling and training when they were young. " No child can be considered properly trained and equipped to take his place in the workaday world if his schooldays end at 14." Millions had managed to struggle through in spite of such a short period of schooling and had made a success of their lives, but there were millions who had not succeeded and found themselves in difficulties when old age was upon them. An experienced investigator into the causes of unemployment had given as his opinion that the hard core of unemployment was composed mainly of those who, having left school at 14 or earlier, had neither at school nor after it learnt any trade, had taken any job that was immediately available in order to bring additional money into the home, and who in many cases were physically and mentally unfit for work because when they were young they did not get enough nourishing food. " We must remedy all that, and our schools are the best remedy. Allowing for all the risks and chances of life, the success or failure of the elder sections of the community is almost a direct measure of the success or failure of the education and training which they received when they were young." Lord Soulbury said that by far the largest single cause of unemployment was the " blind alley ". So many boys and girls on leaving school felt themselves impelled to earn something for the family budget as soon as they possibly could, and entered jobs in which they had no opportunity to acquire any skill or aptitude of lasting value; and at 18 they found themselves stranded. Unless we substituted more responsible methods of employment and provided better technical training during adolescence, the process of manufacturing applicants prepared to rest on the Assistance Board would continue unchecked. The demands of this war had, for the moment, greatly eased the problem, but it might well recur again when the war was over. It was a problem for which you had a right to demand a solution. In war we looked to the youth of our country for its defence and security, and youth had met the call nobly. When the peace came youth must be given its chance to play its full part in the great work of reconstruction which would lie before us.

Special Place Examinations, 1942.—A letter has been sent by the Education Officer of the London County Council on behalf of the Metropolitan evacuating authorities to all local education authorities for higher education in England, Wales, and Scotland with regard to arrangements for a common examination for special places in secondary schools. It states that the arrangement whereby the children took the local examinations made an equitable allocation of awards extremely difficult. For this reason, the education authorities of the metropolitan area are convinced that the interests of candidates from that area would be best served if they were to take the evacuating authorities' examinations. The authorities, however, feel equally strongly that the number of such examinations should be reduced, and discussions have resulted in an agreement to accept one common examination for all candidates to be held at the same time throughout the whole country. It is proposed to hold, in 1942, a common examination for special places in secondary schools and a common examination for children of 13+ (where the examination of such older children is required by the evacuating authority). The examinations would occupy a morning and would be held on the same day, and local authorities would be offered the choice of two dates, Friday, March 6 and Saturday, March 7, 1942. A special examination for candidates absent, for sufficient reason, from the general examination would be held on Wednesday, June 10, 1942. For these examinations the education authorities of the areas in question, viz., Croydon, Essex, East and West Ham, Kent, Middlesex, Surrey, and London, would use common question papers and a common timetable. It is hoped that Part II authorities in the country with children from any of the evacuating areas specified will be prepared to make the necessary local arrangements.

British Council Lecture Tour in South America.—The Rt. Hon. W. Wedgwood Benn, M.P., and Prof. W. J. Entwistle are to leave Britain shortly on a mission to Latin America for the British Council. They will lecture in Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, Bolivia, Peru, Colombia, and Venezuela. Mr. Wedgwood Benn, who first entered the House of Commons in 1906 as a Liberal and subsequently joined the Labour Party, was Secretary of State for India in the second Labour Government. In the last war he had a distinguished career as soldier and airman, and is at present serving with the Royal Air Force.

He has travelled widely in the Far and Middle East, the United States, and Russia, and has lectured many times throughout Europe for the British Council. He is an authority on social services, the British Constitution, and the British Commonwealth of Nations. The subjects of his lectures will include " British Social Services ", " The Citizen and the Worker ", " The Idea of Liberty in the British Commonwealth ", and " The British Parliament in War-time ". Prof. Entwistle is King Alfonso XIII Professor of Spanish Studies and Director of Portuguese Studies at Oxford University. He served in the last war with the Royal Field Artillery and is now a Fellow of Exeter College. Prof. Entwistle will lecture on a variety of subjects, including " St. Thomas More " and " Law and Liberty in English Literature ".

Christian Education.—Viscount Wolmer has received the following letter from the Prime Minister in reply to his letter of August 1, enclosing a memorandum on Christian Education which had been signed by a large number of members of both Houses of Parliament and which emphasized " the opportunity of a new Christian unity " for this great purpose:

" My dear Wolmer,—I have read with great interest your letter of August 1 and the enclosed memorandum on the subject of Christian Education.

" I trust that the remarkable and welcome unanimity of the declaration is an augury that an acceptable solution may be found of these deep questions which touch so closely the nation's future and which a generation ago gave rise to the embittered controversies which I remember so well.

" The declaration, as you know, is already under careful and sympathetic examination by the Board of Education and, as your letter makes clear, you appreciate that it would be difficult for me to say more at the present juncture.

" Yours sincerely,
" (Signed) WINSTON CHURCHILL."

Extensions of the National Certificate Scheme.—The Board of Education have recently issued " Rules 106 (Revised July, 1941) " relating to conditions for the award of National Certificates and Diplomas in Mechanical Engineering. There are no changes in the main body of the rules but the opportunity has been taken to incorporate a note on the approval of courses in certain specialized subjects, *viz.* (1) Aeronautical Engineering, (2) Automobile Engineering, (3) Marine Engineering, (4) Production Engineering and (5) Foundry Work. Where these subjects are included in the existing courses in mechanical engineering the certificate will be countersigned by the appropriate Institution. Attention is drawn to the fact that a Higher National Certificate is now possible in Production Engineering under Rules 106 (P). This is a development about which discussion is still in progress. At present candidates for this certificate first take the Ordinary National Certificate in Mechanical Engineering. Subjects which have been

(*Continued on page* 438)

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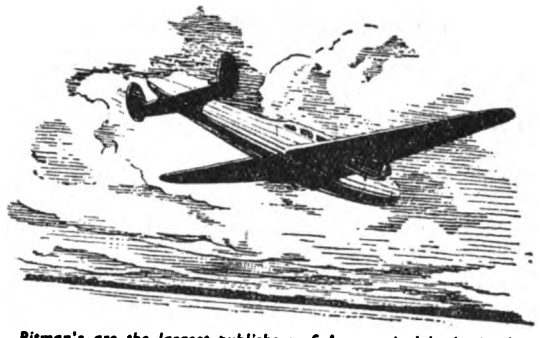

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This list, already too long, has been extended to include such subjects as Costing, Estimating, Rate Fixing, and Wage Systems. Thus the selection of a limited number of subjects presents some difficulty. Much discussion will doubtless take place around this development in the scheme, but there are many who would have wished to see it superimposed on the existing workshop courses instead of appending it to the more academic course in mechanical engineering.

Children's Posters at the Royal Academy.—The first exhibition of children's art to be housed in the Royal Academy was opened on August 23 by the President, Sir Edwin Lutyens. It comprised 1,500 poster designs selected from the 50,000 entries in the competition for schools organized by the National Savings Committee. Awards of merit, consisting of Savings Certificates, are to be made on the vote of those who attended the exhibition. Aircraft, battleships, and munitions figure prominently, and many of the exhibits show humour and imagination, as well as striking design and composition.

Ling Physical Education Association. — Interesting Courses in Physical Education have been arranged by the Ling Physical Education Association in the autumn. Following previous Courses at Bedford, Liverpool and Leeds University, in the spring and summer, courses will be held at King Edward's High School for Girls, Birmingham on October 4, and at the Regent Street Polytechnic, London on October 11.

La Bataille de Grande-Bretagne.—Teachers will be glad to know that a French translation, with illustrations, is now available of the pamphlet *The Battle of Britain*, which met with such outstanding success when it was first issued some months ago. The price is 6d. per copy, or 20s. for fifty copies (H.M.S.O.).

Appointments.—Dr. C. W. W. Read, Assistant Administrative Officer, Lancashire County Education Committee, has been appointed Deputy Director of Education for West Sussex in the place of Mr. W. F. Houghton, M.A., who has taken up his duties as Chief Education Officer for the Borough of Darlington.

Mr. R. N. Armfelt, Secretary for Education for Devon since 1930, has been appointed assistant controller in the Home Division of the B.B.C.

NEW BOOKS

ART FOR ALL

By H. CLARENCE WHAITE, Tutor and Lecturer in Art in the University of London Institute of Education

THERE are many things with which mass production surrounds us for which the sensitive person has just cause for regret. It is the more encouraging, therefore, to discover occasions when these processes are used for the furtherance of art.

That modern printing has made possible the publication of a work by an art critic of Mr. Eric Newton's sensitivity and clarity of statement, at so small a cost, is surely cause for great satisfaction. Mr. Eric Newton is already well known through his broadcasts and his writing in *The Manchester Guardian* and *The Sunday Times*. In this new work,[1] which is both comprehensive and concise, he states his own philosophy of art, gives a clear historical survey tracing the position of the artist in society during the ages and down to the period before the war, and also looks forward into the future. " In an age in which the artist is no longer a major ingredient in the social fabric ", he rightly states that " Art must link itself firmly to something outside itself ".

Of his book he states " it is not a students' book ", but it is safe to predict that it will be eagerly read by every student, young and old, who is interested in art. Moreover, its simplicity of statement should ensure its appeal to a very much wider audience. In fact it will prove of immense help in the urgently necessary work of bringing art, and all it could mean, into the lives of the people. The book would prove a useful source of study among Adult Schools and Evening Institutes as well as school art societies. It would provide an excellent scheme of subjects for consideration in connexion with appreciation of art classes. Considering their limited size, the thirty-two collogravure plates, which show interesting contrasts and variations of treatment of similar subjects by artists of different periods, from ancient to modern, are very well produced. They are clear enough for use on the epidiascope. The book also contains two charts which indicate the importance, period, and influence of many artists whose work is sympathetically considered in its pages.

In contrast to what from the printer's point of view might be regarded as a modest jewel of its craftsmanship there is the superb masterpiece of the new Phaidon Edition, *Donatello*.[2] Coming as it does in days when there is no immediate prospect of another great Italian exhibition of art in London, nor visits to Italy possible, this publication containing 150 full-page plates and 200 illustrations in photogravure is as welcome as an oasis in a desert. Donatello lived during the passing of the spirit of religious aspiration which animated the period following St. Francis. He had studied Greek and Roman sculpture and the then new science of perspective. He lived at a time when new forces were making themselves felt in Europe. His work, though evidencing an assimilation of knowledge of Classic art, shows a new power to create something entirely his own. His best work is full of exuberance, confidence, and masterly understanding of form and has had tremendous influence on the work of succeeding sculptors and painters. The poise and treatment of the head and hair as well as the gesture of the hand in St. Mark, plates 7 and 8, are instances which forecast something of Michaelangelo. Looking through the magnificent photographs in this volume it is interesting to reflect on the community of artists and the inter-relation of the various branches which then still existed as a legacy of the monastic schools. The Crucifixion, plate 138, is a reminder that Uccello was one of Donatello's contemporaries. Donatello himself worked in painted glass, stucco, terra-cotta, marble, wood, wax, and bronze, and some of his bas-relief work has a painter-like quality. Where his contemporaries used paint he found sympathetic response in clay. Occasionally his bas-reliefs, instance plates 93 and 94, in reproductions look rather like vigorous brush drawings. His sympathetic response to media is noticeable in the different treatment of hands of wood and bronze in plates 131 and 133. His fondness for contrasting surface textures and accentuation of direction lines can be seen in the wonderful detail photographs of heads, hands, and drapery falling over limbs in such works as his famous equestrian monument of " Gattamelata " and his " David ".

Donatello was a sculptor whose work was designed for appropriate use in architecture. Our post-war period should afford opportunity for sculptors to experiment with many media, including some unknown to Donatello. There has been a great dearth of noble sculpture in this country and it is hoped that the publication of this record of one

(*Continued on page* 440)

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of the great masters will awaken a desire for greater use in worthy form of this most permanent of the arts. This volume has an excellent and fully documented survey by Ludwig Goldscheider, with notes by various authorities, on the life and work of Donatello. There is also a list of museums and places where his work exists. It is an invaluable book of reference for all students, for whom there can never be too many such books of reproductions. During the last quarter of a century great advances have been made in the study of psychology. Side by side with this has grown an understanding of art, as the result of observation of the art of children, and a realization of the importance of art in education for life. In *The Social Value of Art*[3] Mr. F. R. O'Neill has written what he calls " a psychological and linguistic approach to an understanding of art activity ". This is a sincere and thorough attempt to put into words what the person sensitive to art instinctively appreciates when confronted with a work of art. It tries to convey what an artist understands and realizes as a way of life. Its appeal is intellectual, and should help to convince many intellectuals of the tremendous value of an awareness of art to an enrichment of life. The open eye and the willing ear are needed, as the author recognizes. " The primary difficulty of my task is to make a theoretical explanation of art activity intelligible to those who have no acquaintance with the technicalities which are of necessity involved in such an account. Patience and attention are required on the part of those to whom such an exposition is addressed." " The effort is well worth making because it is impossible to appreciate the greatest values which the arts have to offer without some understanding of the nature of experience and of theories of valuation and communication." To this should be added opportunity and far greater encouragement given, at the hands of sensitive teachers, to make creative and appreciative contact with art in early years and throughout school and college life.

Mr. O'Neill's book has been carefully prepared and merits serious reading. It is well illustrated with plates of reproductions from old and modern masters. Exciting speculation is aroused by Dr. Gerald Rendall's booklet the " *Ashbourne* " *Portrait of Shakespeare.*[4] In it he propounds in a most interesting and thorough way what seems a very plausible piece of evidence (including X-ray photography) for attributing the portrait to be of Edward de Vere, 17th Earl of Oxford, by Cornelis Ketel. He also credits the Earl with the authorship, whole or in part, of the Shakespeare plays. It is a pity that the reproduction of the portrait is not a better one.

In its revised form *A Brief Survey of European Painting*[5] is what its title implies. Its forty pages provide in pamphlet form a list of well-known artists, with their dates and a few notes about their work and lives, and includes a short list of a rather mixed selection of books " for further study ".

Of less historical and more creative in character are a number of books written by the artists themselves, and among these one by Mr. John Skeaping is most revealing.[6] Man has never tired of transcribing his impressions of animals into every material under the sun. The isolated power of the individual Neolithic masterpieces of drawing, the soulful bronzes and magnificently calm paintings by Chinese artists, the heavenly vision of the Persian book painter, and Pisanello have all seen animals in their own ways. Modern transport has enabled most members of the animal kingdom to be represented by live specimens, from all parts of the world, to be gathered together in our zoos for observation and study. In fact the London Zoo had a special studio for the purpose. In addition films and modern methods of collotype reproduction, together with our precious art museums, offer the student tremendous opportunities for the study of animals in nature and in art. One artist of distinction who has realized these possibilities is the author of *Animal Drawing* and *How to Draw Horses*[7], both of which books are fully illustrated with excellent reproductions of the authors' own drawings. It is always interesting to hear, at first hand, what an artist has to say about art, and Mr. Skeaping is very candid and salutary. The unwary on reading " How to draw " might imagine, or expect to find, a book of instructions which, if faithfully followed, would produce the desired result. The author, however, quickly disillusions the reader on that score. To the young he says, " Draw your horses in your own way." " The horse you draw is an animal of your own creation, he can be made how you wish." To the slave of the model and the art school student he says, " Anatomical knowledge . . . is of secondary importance to real understanding of horses from the emotional point of view." " It is far more important for would-be artists to possess a vivid imagination than any number of live horses." At the same time he advocates observation and the contemplation of animals, as well as what he calls " documentary drawing." It is obvious that his own work has undergone changes since the earliest one reproduced, done when he was 8½, to the latest freer drawings made with finger and ink. This latter method has been used by other animal artists and by children with great success. Most of his drawings reflect the inspiration of Neolithic draughtsmen rather than those of China or Persia. *Animal Drawing* contains a few very good plates of Altimira, Bushman, Mogul, and Persian drawings.

It is not many years since we were accustomed to the work of the famous Louis Wain who expressed himself, mostly in good-humoured mood, in his pictures of cats, and there was tremendous variety in the cats portrayed. They were fully as representative as those described by Wanda Gag in *Millions of Cats*. Louis Wain combined in his drawing expression of the spirit of cat with his own good sense of humour and design. The authors of *Drawing a Cat*[8] and *Drawing Dogs*[9] are concerned with cats and dogs themselves and depend on them as models for their drawings. The author of the former states that she stops " a sketch the instant the cat moves ". The animals are considered in very much the same way as the Academic portrait painter does his sitters. The great masterpieces of animal painting of Egypt, Persia, China, and India are expressions of what the artists imagined after previous contemplation of the animals. Both these books will prove popular with adult cat and dog lovers.

The drawings in the series *Us and Our Animals*,[10] though pleasant in themselves, represent an occupation for children which is not in line with enlightened art teaching in schools.

For those students in schools of art who are concerned with the acquisition of knowledge of the science of perspective for examination or other purposes, Mr. Buckley's booklet[11] supplies an introduction to the subject. *How to Draw 'Planes*[12] shows a topical form of application of this science together with an amazing photographic use of charcoal in its plates of 'planes and sky effects.

[1] **European Painting and Sculpture.** By ERIC NEWTON. (6d. Penguin Books.)

[2] **Donatello.** (Phaidon Edition.) (12s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

[3] **The Social Value of Art: a Psychological and Linguistic Approach to an Understanding of Art Activity.** By F. R. O'NEILL. (Psyche Monographs, No. 12.) (6s. net. Kegan Paul.)

[4] **" Ashbourne " Portrait of Shakespeare.** By Dr. G. H. RENDALL. (1s. Colchester : Benham.)

[5] **A Brief Survey of European Painting for Schools.** By R. MURRAY. Second impression. (Aberdeen : Lindsay.)

[6] **Animal Drawing.** By JOHN SKEAPING. New and Revised Edition. (" How to do it " Series.) (10s. 6d. net. Studio Publications.)

[7] **How to Draw Horses.** By J. SKEAPING. (2s. 6d. net. Studio Publications.)

[8] **Drawing a Cat.** By CLARE T. NEWBERRY. (2s. 6d. Studio Publications.)

[9] **Drawing Dogs.** By DIANA THORNE. (2s. 6d. net. The Studio.)

[10] **Us and Our Animals: Ten Outline Pictures for Colouring.** (Friendship Frieze No. 5.) (6d. Edinburgh House Press.)

[11] **Perspective: a Treatise for Art Students.** By H. BUCKLEY. (3s. 6d. net. Pitman.)

[12] **How to Draw 'Planes.** By F. A. A. WOOTTON. (2s. 6d. net. Studio Publications.)

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ARTS AND CRAFTS

By R. A. WILLIAMS, Shoreditch Training College

ONE of the crafts that is truly traditional is that of weaving. It has its roots in the people, and expresses their individuality and national characteristics in a form of art that is both vital and real. The skill and freshness of beautiful pieces of peasant craft reflect the sincerity of the weaver in the urge to produce lively examples of craftsmanship and the joy that it brings with it. To present such a craft, and to retain that freshness and vitality which is so essential to develop the creative impulse, require all the skill and sensitiveness of the artist-craftsman. In *Weaving for Amateurs*,[1] Helen Coates has succeeded triumphantly. As the title suggests, the whole process of hand-weaving is dealt with in a manner that can be easily assimilated. Dyeing, spinning, materials, and varieties of weaving all receive due attention. The diagrams are clear, and the photographs give some fine examples of peasant craftwork that are themselves an inspiration. It is a book that will inspire those who have the urge to create beautiful and useful things, and, through so doing, experience the joy of the true craftsman.

In the same series is *Designing for Moving Pictures*[2] by Edward Carrick, the first book in the English language which deals exclusively with this complicated technique. Here is an example of the enthusiast at his best. From a designer in the theatrical world, he has moved on to the art of the film, convinced that the cinema has risen from a glorified sideshow to become the inspiration of the people. He is the artist-enthusiast expressing his ideals through his medium. The book is thorough, and deals with all phases of designing, drawing and planning of the picture through all the stages and departments concerned with the production as a whole. The film director is shown in his true capacity as an artist craftsman. The illustrations, photographs, and diagrams taken from actual productions add considerably to a book that should interest artist and producer alike.

There are few books that deal so adequately and thoroughly with a traditional craft as that by Charles Crampton on canework.[3] The author has earned a reputation as a practical craftsman and an experienced teacher. His contacts with teachers' classes and summer schools have enabled him to present the subject in a form that ensures a real appreciation of its possibilities as a school craft. It is presented through an historical introduction particularly concise and thorough. The methods of weaving and the working of different types of borders and handles are dealt with in order of difficulty. The clear sketches accompanying them, combined with the excellent descriptions given, should enable the beginner to acquire the necessary technique to make the many and varied examples of baskets illustrated throughout the book. The photographs of the finished jobs, made up from the instructions given, add considerably to the success of the book. A scheme of work covering the junior and senior school stages is a valuable addition.

War-time and the problems of evacuation, involving as they do the movement into country districts of the town children and their teachers, have necessitated a new orientation in many school activities, not the least among them being woodwork and metal work. The outlook of the town craft-teacher has to be extended beyond the limits of articles of domestic utility. So it is that such books as *Woodwork and Metalwork*[4] by C. A. Goodger are particularly welcome. There have been collected in this book some sixty examples of articles associated with country life and rural activities, made in either wood or metal, or both. The activities chosen include gardening, poultry keeping, small buildings, and other appliances. The working drawings are well done and clearly dimensioned. A photograph of the finished job, cutting lists and procedure, make for conciseness and effectiveness.

(Continued on page 442)

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Prof. FRED CLARKE, Director of the University of London Institute of Education, summed up the discussion in two articles in the March and April numbers.

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Dryad publications have done much in promoting and sustaining a real interest in English crafts. Their latest book-catalogue is further evidence of their good work. It gives details of all their books written by experts in their own particular subject who have had the valuable experience of teaching it, which adds considerably to their effectiveness as craft books for the teacher. They have also undertaken the task of the complete revision of their catalogue of handicraft material and equipment. It contains details of all essential apparatus, tools, and materials which, despite war conditions, are still available for the practice of craftwork. Its range of crafts and activities for all ages from nursery school to the senior school is comprehensive, and should meet the requirements of all craft teachers.

Two books that teachers in nursery schools and helpers in the many Welfare Associations will welcome are concerned with doll-making and soft toys. Doll-making has a fascination of its own, and amongst its enthusiasts undoubtedly is Grace Lovat Fraser. Her recent book, *Doll-Making at Home*,[5] should prove a boon to those wishing to learn the art. From her collection she has selected examples which illustrate the various types that are suitable for beginners to experiment with. Her enthusiasm is infectious, the individual doll assuming an importance that reflects the maker's own personality. The descriptions and methods of making are each given in detail, with a resourcefulness in the use of scrap materials that makes it so effective these days, and gives proof of the practicability of her instruction.

To it may be added the book on *Soft Toys*[6] by Ruby Evans. Hand-made toys have an attraction of their own, and, when the ease with which they can be made is demonstrated, and clear and definite instructions are given, as they are in this book, the possibility of success is assured. After dealing with the few simple tools and accessories required, general instructions are given concerned with the making up of soft toys generally. Full instructions follow on the making of a host of delightful animal-characters.

The delights and beauty of specimens of stained glass which contribute so much to the beauty and atmosphere of our churches and cathedrals must always assure respect for the craftsmen who produced such lovely works of art. At a time when so many have been wantonly destroyed, it seems right that the possibility of its being introduced as a craft within the scope of the school should be encouraged. The authors, J. A. F. Divine and G. Blachford in their book *Stained Glass*,[7] have attempted to do this. As a craft, it does offer possibilities despite the limitations imposed upon it by reason of the necessity of firing in a kiln. The sequence of operations and processes and factors governing design and production have received careful attention. The danger lies in its being exploited, because of its effectiveness, by those who are not artist craftsmen, and becoming thereby another ' arty craft '.

Woodwork must ever play its part as one of the valuable traditional crafts, and the one most likely to make the widest appeal to boys. The home, farm, and the field alike provide the interest and the source from which the desire to create is nurtured and encouraged. To most, the desire to produce things for the home is strongest, whether they be utilitarian or pleasure-giving in purpose. That such things shall be of good design and well made calls for guidance from the craftsman skilled and schooled in the subtleties of the craft. Not only is this true of woodwork, but also of bookbinding and needlework, two other traditional crafts that are widely practised in most schools.

It is for this reason that it is good to see three books that should make a wide appeal to all teachers of these crafts.

The first is *Constructive Woodwork for Schools*.[8] This third edition has been revised and completely replanned. The author is well known as a teacher-craftsman, and has drawn freely from his experience. The lay-out with working drawings and a photograph of the finished job, coupled with the working instructions, makes the book attractive and effective. There are some fifty simple jobs fully dealt with, all of which should find a place in the home. They range from tea-trays and book-racks to small cabinets and tables. A chapter or two on veneering, inlaying, wood finishing, &c., make a useful addition to the book.

One of the crafts that deserves more attention than it has received is that of bookbinding. With a sound knowledge of the craft and experience of the capabilities and possibilities of the Junior and Senior school pupils, it is possible to plan a course of work that springs from the elementary exercises and develops into the skilful artistry of the finished book.

Bookbinding for Schools[9] is a fine little book, written by an experienced teacher-craftsman. The potentialities of the craft are always to the fore to stimulate and inspire. It is comprehensive and thorough. The necessary equipment and the materials required are included for the beginner and dealt with in a capable manner. The illustrations are particularly effective, and the many photographs of fine pieces of the bookbinder's art pay tribute to their excellence.

Simple Embroidery[10] is a little book that should fill a long-felt need by those who realize and appreciate the dangers involved in using transfer designs supplied by needlework shops. It is for the needlewoman herself to build up her design from the simple stitches at her command. With the guidance given, it should be possible to decide on the suitability of the stitch for the material being used, in relation to the design as a whole. Valuable help is given in planning and spacing and appropriateness of the design for the purpose in view. The value of colour and colour-matching cannot be neglected, and opens up possibilities of charming schemes.

In *Lettering for Children*[11] the author makes a plea for the inclusion of lettering in the general education of the child. It is true that the general standard of the printed book has improved enormously in recent years, and the ever-increasing attention given to lettering in advertisement and poster, based on good traditional forms, augurs well for the future. But much poor work is still produced and the interest in ordinary handwriting is not very great. It is the author's hope that, by teaching children to appreciate honest pen-forms and to acquire the habit of good spacing and arrangements, they will experience the joy and pleasure to be found in producing their own manuscript books. The book contains many examples of suitable pen-letter forms and specimens of children's work. Lino-cut decorations, ' stick print ', and pen-made margins illustrate the originality, charm, and naïveté of the child's work.

The study of child psychology has done much to encourage the introduction of modelling in clay in the school of to-day, from the infant school onwards. The possibilities of stimulating the creative impulses by working with materials of visual and tactile realization are well recognized. It also provides an outlet for the constructive, as well as the destructive, instinct common to all children. *Modelling*[12] is a stimulating little book. The method of approach to the subject as it is affected by the age of the modeller is admirably dealt with in chapters concerned with the young child, the older child, the adolescent, and the adult. The possibilities of relief modelling and the making of plaster casts by the older pupils are indicated, and the practical difficulties involved are set out with a conciseness and thoroughness that is the outcome of practice and experience.

[1] **Weaving for Amateurs.** By HELEN COATES.

[2] **Designing for Moving Pictures.** By E. CARRICK (E. CRAIG). ("How to Do It" Series.) (8s. 6d. net each. Studio Publications.)

[3] **Canework.** By CHARLES CRAMPTON. (7s. Leicester: The Dryad Press.)

[4] **Woodwork and Metalwork: for the School Garden and Smallholding.** By C. A. GOODGER. (8s. 6d. Leicester: The Dryad Press.)

[5] **Doll Making at Home.** By GRACE L. FRASER. (2s. 6d. net. Studio Publications.)

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[6] **Make Your Own Soft Toys.** By RUBY EVANS. (Woman's Magazine Handbooks, No. 6.) (4s. 6d. net. Lutterworth Press.)
[7] **Stained Glass Craft.** By J. A. F. DIVINE and G. BLACHFORD. (4s. 6d. net. Warne.)
[8] **Constructive Woodwork for Schools.** By A. GREGORY. (8s. 6d. net. Leicester: The Dryad Press.)
[9] **Bookbinding for Schools: a Text-book for Teachers and Students in Elementary and Secondary Schools and Training Colleges.** By J. S. HEWITT-BATES. (7s. net. Leicester: The Dryad Press.)
[10] **Simple Embroidery.** By ELSIE MOCHRIE. (1s. 6d. net. Leicester: The Dryad Press.)
[11] **Lettering for Children.** By R. TANNER. (3s. net. Leicester: The Dryad Press.)
[12] **Modelling.** By MARIA PETRIE. (3s. 6d. net. Leicester: The Dryad Press.)

ELEMENTARY LATIN READING-BOOKS

By E. H. BLAKENEY

THE multiplication of elementary Latin reading-books, to say nothing of exercise-books, shows little sign of abating. It is questionable whether these peptonized manuals are likely to prove, in the final result, more valuable than those older editions of the classics—some of them merely plain texts—on which our forefathers were brought up. As a rule these volumes had no vocabularies; boys had to do without them, and learn to use their dictionaries—a useful discipline. Here we have four little volumes,[1-4] admirably printed and attractive to the eye. This is all to the good. Mr. Kennedy's edition of the third book of Caesar's *Bellum Civile* appears to answer the purposes for which it was intended; it is the only edition we know of suited for young students. The notes are, in the main, brief and clear; yet, even so, they might easily have been briefer, with advantage. Rather too much help is given; better for boys to puzzle out difficulties for themselves than have too much done for them. The vocabulary, in this case, is somewhat of an intrusion; and the same thing may be said of Messrs. Gould and Whiteley's edition of the *De Amicitia* of Cicero, of which, by the way, several good editions are already in the field. We are inclined to think that most, if not all, of the illustrations might be spared; but on this point opinions will differ. The notes are good and helpful, and the introductory matter adequate. Much the same may be said of the selections from the five Latin poets (by the same editors). These selections run to 600 lines—just sufficient for a term's work. The pieces have been chosen with considerable care, and are interesting in themselves. The annotations err rather on the side of excess, and we think it was hardly necessary to deal so fully with questions of prosody and metre; the more so as the book is intended specially for pupils in county secondary schools. But, on the whole, this volume is a meritorious one.

Mr. Robinson tells us that this little volume[5] has for its theme the Roman character as seen at various stages. The extracts given have obviously been selected with care and discrimination, whether from verse or prose writers; the notes are commendably brief, and there are some useful sentences for translation into Latin, with the necessary rules of syntax attached. The book is well adapted for a second-year course.

A very attractive manual, of its kind, suited to the needs of second-year learners.[6] In any case we have rarely met with a better. The title of the book for one thing, the brief 'maxims for translation' for another, seem to indicate, not obscurely, that the editor has the gift of a pleasant humour, and is therefore likely to be an alert teacher. There is a nice irony in the fact that the (inevitable) prefatory note is written in—Latin! We have no hesitation in commending this little book to all and sundry.

Confronted with another Latin reader, on much the same lines as others which come fast from the press, one is apt to think of the lines in *The Walrus and the Carpenter*:

"Thick and fast they came, at last,
And more and more and more."

(*Continued on page 444*)

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Sed haec hactenus. This[7] is quite a good book of its kind; the extracts, fifteen in number, are well chosen (from writers like Eutropius—once an old favourite at Westminster School—Q. Curtius, Aulus Gellius, Nepos, as well as from stock writers like Vergil and Ovid and Horace); there are plenty of notes—too many, we think; the inevitable vocabulary, and the equally inevitable chapter on prosody; together with five fairly good maps. There are no illustrations; and we express no regrets on that score. The introductions to the various passages " place the extracts against the background of the writer's work as a whole ", and each piece has a brief ' argument ' to enable the learner to grasp the meaning, before attempting a construe. There is one serious fault in the book: the prose pieces have no section marks, and the verse extracts have the lines left unnumbered. Hence the difficulty of ready reference, when the notes are consulted.

[1] **Julius Caesar: Civil War, Book III.** Edited with Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by E. C. KENNEDY. (3s. 6d.)
[2] **Julius Caesar: Civil War, Book III. Chapters 73–112.** Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by E. C. KENNEDY. (2s. net.)
[3] **Selections from Five Roman Poets (Catullus, Vergil, Horace, Tibullus, Ovid).** Edited with Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by H. E. GOULD and J. L. WHITELEY. (2s. 3d.)
[4] **Cicero: De Amicitia.** With Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by H. E. GOULD and J. L. WHITELEY. (2s. 6d.) (Modern School Classics. Macmillan.)
[5] **Romani: a Reader for the Third Stage of Latin.** By C. E. ROBINSON. (2s. 9d. Cambridge University Press.)
[6] **Imperitis.** By A. S. C. BARNARD. (2s. Bell.)
[7] **Excerpta: a Latin Reader for Middle and School Certificate Forms.** By A. R. ANDREWS, with the co-operation of R. D. WORMALD. (3s. Murray.)

PICTURE OF THE MODERN WORLD

By MICHAEL STEWART

THESE three volumes seek to present social and political problems either to senior adolescents or to the general reader with limited knowledge. They are all clearly and attractively written and provide the reader with the desire and the equipment to seek further knowledge. Dr. Mess's book[1] is a model of what a Discussion Book should be—accurate, well-proportioned, provocative of discussion, and furnished with an excellent bibliography. From a description of the character and influence of social groups the author concludes that a group is made by continuity, consciousness, tradition, organization, and contrast or conflict with other groups. He argues that it is possible for the community of mankind to develop these characteristics and so to command an effective loyalty from individuals. It could not develop the characteristic of conflict: but is this characteristic essential or is it a morbid growth produced in certain groups by repression or evil guidance? This question and, indeed, the whole of what may be called the pathology of groups receives little attention; the author's own liberal sanity has perhaps led him to underestimate the viciousness of mankind.

Dr. Leese and Mr. Irving[2] present short sketches of Ataturk, Gandhi, Roosevelt, Hitler, Stalin, Mussolini, and Chamberlain. The first two of these—as is natural in a book written primarily for Indian students—are presented with the fullest sympathy, though there is in every chapter a skilful blending of personal detail with public life. An excellent feature of the book is that it does not portray success and power as admirable in themselves, but maintains a moral standard and a detestation of tyranny and cruelty. Inevitably there is some over-simplification, but the book is one which merits wide adoption in India and could be used with profit in this country.

Mr. Lewis[3] examines the problems of scarcity, property, international trade, and unemployment, introducing into his inquiry an explanation of the principles of economics. He has a fondness for orthodox price-theory and, one might almost say, for *laissez-faire*. There is much criticism of ill-advised governmental action, but little reference to the diseases which Capitalism has developed on its own. The successes of Roosevelt and Stalin are relegated to a few sentences while their failures receive careful attention. Examples are selected and statistics arranged to support a particular view. This is, in fact, a propagandist book; as such it is a good piece of work and a valuable corrective to excessive and vague enthusiasm for ' planning '.

[1] **Social Groups in Modern England.** By Dr. H. A. MESS. (Discussion Books.) (2s. 6d. net. Nelson.)
[2] **Leaders of the Modern World.** By Dr. J. LEESE and G. IRVING. (2s. 6d. Longmans.)
[3] **Economic Problems of To-day.** By W. A. LEWIS. (3s. 6d. Longmans.)

THE CHRISTIAN PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

By C. BIRCHENOUGH, Chief Inspector of Education, Kent Education Committee

THE ever-present danger in education is that undue attention may be given to means and too little to ends, with the result that means come to be regarded as ends and basic issues are confused. For well over twenty years a vast amount of thought has been given to teaching devices of all sorts, to forms of organization, to the content of the curriculum, to measurement, and the so-called scientific side of education, but notably little time has been found for considering the deeper problems of education. The same tendency has been marked in the training of teachers. While it is true that a philosophical approach to the study of education is not suitable for a proportion of students, the neglect of philosophy over a prolonged period will gradually but surely result in a lowering of faith and conviction among the great body of the teaching profession. The currency of well-tried principles ceases to circulate. With this goes an ignorance of the past; hoary heresies take on new guises; there is a restlessness, a liking to innovate all things and to despise everything but that which is new.

Something of this sort is apparent to-day. It may well be that one of the significant results of the Archbishops' Statement on Christian Education will be to induce a growing number of men and women to ask themselves what is the ultimate purpose of education and what a truly Christian education implies. There is a fairly general feeling that much more than an improvement in religious teaching is involved. What has to be achieved is a way of life. But how can we know the way?

We have come to regard education not so much as a matter of schooling as the development of personality. Personality, however, has little value unless it implies the sanctity of the individual. The only ground on which any such claim can be based is that man, a strange composite of body and mind, of the finite and the infinite, is made in the image of his Maker, and that all men have equal value in the sight of God. This, however, is not the philosophy which obtains in large areas of Europe where men are treated as pabulum or robots in the interest of the State. Nor is it the philosophy of that section of opinion in America which looks to the speeding up of evolutionary processes in order to produce the superman.

In our own country we are told that we must always expect to have a community made up of citizens who range from convinced faith to equally convinced atheism. Whether this is so or not only the future can show. It may well be, however, that, as scientific knowledge continues to grow and a clearer vision of the Universe in all its greatness and wonder is seen by the mass of mankind, there may be less unwillingness to leave the tents of Naturalism for an abiding place in the city of Christian Theism.

Professor Cunningham's book* has appeared at an

* **The Pivotal Problems of Education: an Introduction to the Christian Philosophy of Education.** By Prof. W. F. CUNNINGHAM (12s. 6d. net. New York: Macmillan.)

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opportune moment. His thoughtful and well-balanced volume is an authoritative presentation of the Christian Philosophy of Education from the Catholic standpoint. The author holds the professorship of education in the Catholic University of Notre Dame, New York. While the book is intended primarily for Catholic post-graduate students who are undergoing training for teaching, the needs of undergraduates have not been overlooked. Taking as his text Graham Balfour's dictum that the function of educational administration is " to enable the right pupils to receive the right education from the right teachers under conditions which will enable the pupils best to profit by the training ", he examines in turn the four pivotal problems of education, the pupil, the curriculum, the teacher, and general administration.

But first he has to consider what man is and what is his end. He finds his answer not in idealism, nor in materialism, nor yet in humanism, but in what he calls supernaturalism. Man is not only a social and a rational animal; he is a religious animal definitely related to a superior being, the Author of the Universe, God. He came from God, he is made in the image and likeness of God, and his chief object in life is to return to God. Revelation, faith, original sin, grace, are basic conceptions in this view of man. The end of education is Christian perfection in this life and eternal salvation in the next. In order to secure the perfection of his personality on earth, man has the help of grace which builds on nature. Discipline is a necessary element. This follows from the doctrine of original sin. Self-development through self-discipline is the universal law. Heredity, environment, rationality, grace, are the four factors in the making of man.

It is impossible to do more than hint at the wealth of interesting material in this book and the freshness and suggestiveness with which a wide variety of subjects is handled. The book is a mine of material for discussion purposes. Part I, which deals with the pupil's nature and needs, includes among other things a study of behaviour, a discussion of theories of learning, seven essentials of living, and a discussion of the part the school has to play in education. At a time when sloppiness is not uncommon both in school work and in the thinking that goes on about instruction, the following quotations selected at random are not without interest: " The specific function of the school is the perfection of human personality through perfecting the human mind "; " The school is primarily an intellectual agency "; " The prime function of the school is the making of minds "; " A liberal education does not consist in imparting knowledge, but in training habits and powers of the mind ". The influence of Newman in all this is very noticeable.

Part II, which includes a discussion of the philosophy of the curriculum, the technique of teaching, and the training of teachers, has two interesting chapters for English readers on the dilemma of democratic education and on the American educational ladder. They are commended to that not inconsiderable body of teachers and others who dream of the blessings that would accrue from having large multilateral schools, or who are attracted by neat and tidy systems of organization forgetting that human beings, just because they are human, do not lend themselves to overmuch regimentation. Those who tend to be depressed from time to time about the state of religious education in this country will find the account of secular education in America a useful antidote. The Government which in 1870 safeguarded religious education by a time-table conscience clause performed a service of inestimable value. In spite of some disadvantages, its supreme merits, taking the long view, are unquestionable.

In the account of English education in Professor Cunningham's book a number of errors appear but they do not materially interfere with the general argument.

It only remains to say that this is a book which is well worth reading by any one interested in the problems of Christian Education whether Catholic or not. There are copious references for further reading, mainly to American writers.

SOME MODERN METHODS OF APPROACH

By T. RAYMONT

THE new books here to be noticed have one characteristic in common; they all exemplify the modern methods of attacking educational problems which may or may not be new. To begin with, ever since the 1840's, when our first school inspectors were appointed, the public organization of national education has had somehow to be dealt with. The upheavals of 1870 and 1902, especially that of 1902, increased the number of inspectors and organizers and administrators, but did not change their general method, which was that of reliance upon tradition and common sense. But now comes Dr. H. G. Stead, as the forerunner of a method which is to regard tradition with scientific detachment, and is to check with all the resources of research the deliverances of common sense. In America, the astounding increase in the school population in the second half of last century made the systematic study of administration, by men like G. D. Strayer of Teachers College, a matter of sheer necessity; but in this country Dr. Stead's new book[1] is nearly the first of its kind. The fact that diagrams and statistical tables abound in its pages might repel the casual reader, but he would be mistaken. For the author is under no illusion as to the true place of organization. Again and again he warns the reader that organization is a means, not an end; that like fire it is a good servant but a shockingly bad master; and that the more perfect the organization the more disastrous will be its results if its *aims* are wrong. He admits that it always lags a little behind the best thought of the time, but insists that it should incorporate all the best thought that has stood the test of real experiment. It must therefore be flexible, not rigid. In this spirit the author discusses the whole field, including children, teachers, buildings, time-tables, discipline, examinations, and so on—all from the enlightened administrator's point of view. At the end of this war, mankind will again strike its tents and be on the march. " This time ", pleads Dr. Stead, " the march must be, not to a land fit for heroes to live in, but to a land fit for all the ordinary common people of the world to live in, and the schools must show the way ". Dr. Stead is to be thanked for a very human as well as a scientific treatment of his subject. He understands the value of statistics and diagrams, but he also understands the value of a good story.

The next book to be considered applies modern methods of research to the tragically new problem of the evacuation of school children. It is a war-time study in social welfare and education.[2] The names of the editor and her co-operators, and of the consultative committee which showed their confidence in her work, are a sufficient guarantee of its thoroughness within its limits. The all-important degree of thoroughness was secured by limiting the inquiry to the children evacuated in September, 1939 from Tottenham and Islington to Cambridge, but there are considerations which show that this sample was an instructive one. Every one now knows that the great trek from London at that time was simply a military measure, and that wishful thinking after Munich had left us with no scheme except the mere mechanics of flight from London. " When ", says this report, " we had a whole year in which to plan, it is bitter to reflect that we in our proud democracy showed so little prevision, so little knowledge of the parents and children upon whom we were to act so disturbingly, and in whose hands the success or failure of the scheme rested ". The broad general conclusion of this meticulously careful survey is that the first great scheme for evacuation might have been far less of a failure if it had been planned with more understanding of human nature, and especially of the enormous strength of the family tie. The survey will

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be found to throw light upon every important aspect of evacuation, and to show how hopeless was a scheme which ignored family feeling, which required only blind obedience from the teachers, which assumed that billeting needed no expert supervision, and that neither children nor foster parents had any claim to be personalities, and which required months of persuasion before hostels were sanctioned. The reviewer happens to live in a different kind of reception area, but his conclusions, based not indeed upon scientific scrutiny, but upon acquaintance, in some cases quite close, with evacuee children, foster parents, and the varying fortunes of a hostel, entirely confirm the recommendations made in this excellent survey.

The next book that calls for notice deals with a problem which is by no means new, but by a method which, if not new, is relatively untried. The problem is that of adolescent delinquency, and the method is described by Mr. W. D. Wills in his account of the Hawkspur Experiment.[3] The orthodox attitude toward the wayward youth is, says Mr. Wills, " You have done a bad thing. Therefore you are a bad boy. Therefore I cannot love you any more ". The attitude of Mr. Wills and his colleagues is rather, " You have done a bad thing. Therefore you are a silly ass, but we love you just the same ". Some of the results of giving freedom to such a boy would appal most people. By Mr. Wills and his colleagues this freedom is regarded " not as a privilege that is bestowed upon the boys because we superior mortals think the experience might be useful for them, but as an absolute necessity to enable them to set a term to the horrors of personal self-discipline which we have thrust upon them by refusing to be authoritarian ". So prison life is far easier and simpler—and also far less educative—than life in a place where a boy may end by conforming to rule because he has become sick and tired of deciding otherwise. Such is the general spirit in which this remarkable experiment was conducted. On the subject of religion Mr. Wills, as a member of the Society of Friends, has no definite creed to uphold, and on the subject of sex he entirely declines to be shocked. " Open and above board " is an essential part of the treatment.

A Victorian teacher of science, Mr. J. C. Buckmaster, relates how he was engaged to give some lectures at a ladies' school in a fashionable part of London. Reluctant consent was given to his proposal that one of the lectures should be on respiration. A few days later he received a note as follows : " Mrs. —— presents her compliments to Mr. Buckmaster, and hopes he will be able to give his lesson without any diagrams or drawings. Mrs. —— doubts the propriety of such lessons in a school for young ladies, and a regard for their feelings induces Mrs. —— to make this request ". Poor Buckmaster never gave the lesson, for on arrival he found Mrs. —— in tears. One of the young ladies had eloped with a draper's assistant. Those were the days when, for example, T. H. Huxley wrote an almost classical introduction to human physiology, marked by the thoroughness of a master, except that he did not dare to make the most distant reference to the organs of reproduction. Well, times have changed, as we see in turning over the pages of Mr. Theodore Tucker's latest book on sex problems.[4] The old " conspiracy of silence " has given place to a new policy of shouting from the housetops. Dr. Harry Roberts contributes a Foreword in which he says that, although he thinks there has been far too much talking and writing about sex in the last ten years or so, he is glad that this work has found its way into print. There is not the least doubt about the first of these opinions, and there is little doubt about the second. The author speaks from a wide experience in dealing with the subject among boys and young men in different types of schools. Moreover, the book does not deal with perversions, but is written for the normal person who is " a bit bothered with all this sex business, and wants to get his ideas straightened out ". Most elderly or middle-aged people, looking back over the days of their youth, would probably agree that a book of this kind would have helped them, though some of them would have been better pleased if an author, writing with aims similar to those of Mr. Tucker, had cut the cackle and come to business in the form of plain fact and unsentimental advice.

[1] **Modern School Organization.** By Dr. H. G. STEAD. (9s. 6d. University Tutorial Press.)

[2] **The Cambridge Evacuation Survey : a Wartime Study in Social Welfare and Education.** Edited by SUSAN ISAACS with the co-operation of SIBYL C. BROWN and R. H. THOULESS. Written by GEORGINA BATHURST, SIBYL C. BROWN, J. BOWLBY, G. A. BULLEN, NANCY FAIRBAIRN, SUSAN ISAACS, N. S. MERCER, MADELINE ROOFF, R. H. THOULESS. (8s. 6d. net. Methuen.)

[3] **The Hawkspur Experiment : an Informal Account of the Training of Wayward Adolescence.** By W. D. WILLS. (6s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

[4] **Sex Problems and Youth.** By T. F. TUCKER. (5s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

ADVICE TO STUDENTS

By T. RAYMONT

NEVER in our time has there been any lack of books designed to inform the earnest young man how to use his mind, how to cultivate his memory, how to succeed in his vocation, and how to pass his examinations. Some of these books have been well meant, but based upon an inadequate psychology ; others have amounted to little else than pretentious quackery. An exception must be made of Todd's *Student's Manual*, an old book to which the late John Adams referred appreciatively when in 1925 he brought out *The Student's Guide*, followed a few years later by Prof. Pears' *The Art of Study*. These are two examples of a group of books, American as well as British, written in the light of modern psychology. The latest addition to the group is the one here under notice.* Dr. Hopkins explains that the first course of lectures in England designed to give psychological aid to students was initiated by Prof. Spearman at University College, London, and that, when Prof. Spearman's services were no longer available, he undertook to give a similar course. The present book is for the most part the substance of that course.

The book is commendably brief and business-like. The author would probably agree that, whilst most students can derive profit from the advice which a psychologist can give, there is some danger of making them too self-conscious about their methods of work. They should listen and weigh, and they should then get to work, and put their backs into it. In his first chapter Dr. Hopkins puts himself into easy relation with his readers, and will probably convince many of them that they have yet something to learn on such topics as how to make notes and how to read a book. The art of memorizing is a well-worn theme, but what the author has to say about it is at any rate no stale repetition, though he is perhaps less helpful here than elsewhere. On the other hand, his treatment of study-habits and of fatigue, its causes and cure, is extremely good. So also is his chapter on " emotionality ", with its references, both sympathetic and caustic, to moods and mind-wandering, fluster and panic and anxiety. Here he takes occasion to point out that shortcomings of character cause a greater number of failures than lack of intelligence or of professional training. On the subject of habit formation Dr. Hopkins inevitably refers back to William Janes' famous chapter, inspired in some measure by Bain, and continued in Thorndike's experimental work. I conclude with what seems to me a good example of the author's happy combination of science and common-sense—" The average student, if he has the opportunity of strengthening his not-too-firm powers of attention by placing himself under supervision in a study-hall, or in a library, would be wise to accept it ".

Dr. Hopkins' book is not only the latest of its kind, but also in my judgment the best.

* **Aids to Successful Study.** By Dr. PRYN HOPKINS. (5s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

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ENGLISH TEXT-BOOKS

By W. S. TOMKINSON

ONE of the constant preoccupations of the teacher is to secure the necessary adjustment between his teaching and the class text-books. Although the relation is not always so close as could be wished, yet an examination of current text-books throws some light on modern methods of teaching and organizing the subjects.

Recent reading books, for example, show clearly enough the general desire to widen the range of subject-matter by drawing more and more upon general knowledge rather than upon material of purely literary interest. In the books under review there is information upon such diverse matters as the construction of boats,[1] the building of houses,[2] the phenomena of weather, the films, the work of a cowboy (this last in story form), the topography of the Holy Land,[3] and so on. The reasons for this diversity of content are admittedly cogent. It is designed to attract the ' so-called non-literary ' pupil, and further, to use his spontaneous, out-of-school interests to arouse a desire for reading. All this is admirable, although one hopes that factual material will not come to be regarded as valuable for its own sake quite apart from the way in which it is presented. Otherwise we shall find ourselves in the company of the detestable Mr. Gradgrind, who is always lurking in school corridors. One notices, too, that contemporary authors are being increasingly drawn upon, and this not merely for short extracts or in potted versions. The advantages are obvious. Coleridge once pointed out that the easiest and most inviting approach to literary culture may well begin (but not end) with the reading of one's contemporaries. We breathe the same intellectual atmosphere ; we are not separated from them by outmoded beliefs (Milton's theology for example) or by outworn turns of expression. Nevertheless there is still a fair balance between the old and the new. Here is yet another edition, for example, of Lamb's essays,[4] pleasantly produced by Nelson. There is a charming reproduction of Maclis's sketch of the author and a brief and well-written introduction. The notes cover some 85 pages. Many of them are superfluous. Every reader of Lamb's essays may be supposed to have access to an English dictionary and to be able to discover without difficulty the meaning of such words as ' primogeniture ', ' excrescence ', ' coxcombry '. Moreover, he should have sufficient imagination to be able to interpret for himself such phrases as ' river horse ', ' for a dream-while or so '. The questions and exercises at the end are brief and suggestive, although it may be thought that it is better to leave the teacher to devise these for himself. Three of Tennyson's *Idylls of the King*—The Coming of Arthur, The Passing of Arthur, Gareth and Lynette, are carefully edited (much on the same general pattern as the Lamb mentioned above) by Mr. A. S. Collins for the University Tutorial Press. And there is a very pretty and useful selection from Lamb and Hazlitt edited by Mr. R. W. Jepson for Longman's " Heritage of Literature " series.[5]

Most of these reading books carry the usual battery of questions intended to test the child's understanding of what he reads. Here again a wise restraint is necessary and a deft touch indispensable. Obviously, tests which may be well suited to informative passages will not serve equally well for imaginative writing—from which indeed they may rob the bloom. Curiously enough the ' Fore-Question ' so successfully employed by Prof. Michael West, by which the pupil's attention is directed to essential points in the chapter he is *about* to read, has not yet come into general favour. Its usefulness with young children is unquestionable, for it helps to focus thought and establish a direct bond between the mind of reader and writer. On the other hand, the preparation of texts limited to vocabularies based upon ' word-counts ' seems to be on the increase. In the interesting " Plays Retold " series, published by the Oxford University Press, Mr. Priestley's *Laburnum Grove*[6] and Shakespeare's *The Winter's Tale*,[7] are retold, within a vocabulary of 2,000 words ; but, while Mr. Priestley's play keeps its dramatic form, *The Winter's Tale* has been recast as a narrative. The legitimacy of tampering with the integrity of a literary text will no doubt be questioned. It is too complex a question to be argued here. Apart from the production of drama, the reading of plays is certainly increasing in schools. In addition to the books already mentioned, some excellent fare is to hand whether for reading or acting. The Oxford Press add two more books to their New Clarendon Shakespeare, a series which is as good as it looks—*Henry V*, edited by R. F. W. Fletcher,[8] and *As You Like It*, edited by Isabella J. Bisson.[9] The *Cameo Plays* published by E. J. Arnold[10] have now reached Book VIII, and muster a team of distinguished authors who combine skill in their craft with a knowledge of what children can reasonably attempt in this medium. The very happily named Children's Theatre, published by A. and C. Black, is nicely adapted to the needs of junior classes, and includes a note to producers which is full of good advice. The *Story-Tellers of Britain* by L. du Garde Peach[11] consists of plays based on famous books, which have been broadcast in the Children's Hour and are now adapted for the class-room.

The aids and exercises in composition show the same tendency already noticed in the reading books. The general aim, as an American writer recently put it, is to " assist children to engage as effectively as possible in the common and immediately useful arts of language ". The teacher will find valuable help in implementing this aim in the books listed below and particularly in *Direct English*,[12] and *Everyday English for Young Citizens*.[13] Of the comprehension exercises which most of these books contain it may be said that the questions which are intended to test the pupil's awareness of beauty in poetry are much less successful than questions based on prose. Admittedly the aim is high—perhaps too high ; and the response, too often, a revolting flux of infant criticism. For those who like a book combining reading and language exercises, *The Oxford English Course* (Alternative Books)[14] is admirably planned and unusually varied in content.

In this batch of recent books there is good reading for the teacher as well as for the child. Mr. George Sampson has done well to give us the shortened *Cambridge History of English Literature*.[15] The necessary compression has been done with skill and feeling, so that the great figures stand out clearly against the general background. The book is marked throughout by great good sense, and the vigorous incisiveness of the critical judgments will secure the goodwill of many readers who might well be intimidated by the bulk of the original. Now that one has the book, one wonders how one managed without it. Of the anthologies to hand, Violet Meynell's *Anthology of Nature Poetry*[16] is a charmer. Here is an anthology boldly conceived in the Wordsworthian faith that Nature is an " appetite ; a feeling and a love " ; and this at a time when modern poetry seems to have turned its back on Nature, in the mood, common to disillusioned humanity, of cutting off its nose to spite its face. Why all this modern peevishness about Nature because Wordsworth once presented her as a kind of fairy godmother ? *Le ciel est sourd, la terre te dédaigne*. No doubt. All the same, those who cannot enjoy the lovely living world reflected in Miss Meynell's pages must have been corrupted by the blessings of an urban civilization. The subject-matter of *The White Cliffs*[17] is in sharp contrast to Miss Meynell's anthology, for it is war poetry written by an American woman who loves the English countryside, and loves, too, (although she chastens at times) the English folk. Mr. Spender has recently explained that there is likely to be little poetry written about the present war because it was all written before the war began, and fell on deaf ears. Here, however, is verse which may well be read for its quiet sincerity and moving themes, long after the war has ended.

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There are excellent reasons why books, and especially children's books, should look gay and cheerful. Dr. Florence Bamberger has shown convincingly that, when a child is free to choose his own reading, the appearance of a book often affects his choice. We know how important it is in general to set up pleasant associations between the student and his subject, and particularly so in the early stages of learning. Modern educational psychology teaches us to undertake consciously what Rousseau's schoolmaster (according to Rousseau) seems to have achieved by a happy negligence; that is, never to permit the association of 'disgust' with 'study'. To provide pleasant-looking books for the study of English may well help to make pleasant the habit of English study. From the present batch of books, I single out for honourable mention in this respect: *Direct English*, by Dr. M. M. Lewis and A. H. S. Stewart[12], *The Active English Course*, by G. S. Humphreys and J. C. Roberts[18], *The Groundwork of English Composition*, by S. C. Glassey.[19]

As to the content of these class-books in English, there is again a marked improvement over the old days, although not so noticeable perhaps as the improvement in appearance. What is noticeable is the tendency to draw their material, whether for reading or writing practice, from everyday affairs. Indeed one of these books (*English from the News*[20]) rather despairingly assumes that children will read little or nothing but newspapers once they have left school, and bases all its exercises upon news-extracts taken from *The Sunday Times*. Still another (*Direct English*[12]) actually invents a whole newspaper—*The Bradbury Weekly Chronicle*, in order to provide ammunition for a battery of ingenious and interesting comprehension tests. It is all to the good that the school shall bring its work into touch with life—or at least with the best in life—but the reason usually given for this orientation is, I think, disputable, and certainly dangerous in its implications. It is alleged that many children are so uncreative in their writing and so unreceptive in their reading that the only diet which will succeed with these 'unacademic' natures must be made up of plain 'factual' material as it is called. One would have thought it possible, within the unexampled range and variety of our literature, to find material which would appeal even to the so-called 'non-literary' child. Where literature fails with children it is not so much the failure of literature as the failure of the teacher to make a wise selection. It cannot for a moment be maintained that the 'non-literary' pupil is not interested in imaginative fiction; the astonishing popularity of the cheap weeklies which are read by boys and girls of all ages and social classes would of itself be sufficient to disprove that. Indeed, George Orwell, in his masterly analysis of 'Boys' Weeklies' in the March number of *Horizon* (an article which all teachers of English should ponder) takes it for granted that Billy Bunter, the fat boy of *The Magnet* stories, is 'famous wherever the Union Jack waves'. And the more that the 'non-literary' boy is denied in his school reading a proper imaginative stimulus, the more will he seek out the fantasy world of Billy Bunter. Moreover, the English of most school books which deal with commonplace things is all too often commonplace English; how could it be otherwise since it needs the touch of genius to make the commonplace uncommon and memorable? Of the books listed below, several indeed do draw upon great literature, and the material selected for reading and study is sound and lively. Whether these extracts will serve their prime purpose of sending children to the source is quite another matter; but I think this might be helped if the copious and at times captious comprehension questions which follow the extracts were cut down a little, and room found for a brief note which would relate the extract to the book whence it came—as is done for example in *English Literature for Students Abroad*, by H. B. Drake.[21] The truth is that the comprehension question, essential as it is for profitable study, is in some danger of becoming an incubus. Not infrequently these questions exact a knowledge of niggling detail while turning a blind eye to the broader merits of the passage under review.

Of the remaining books on my list the following are to be commended for their lively exercises and well-planned course: *Take Pen and Ink*, by E. M. Wilkie,[22] *Everyday English for Young Citizens*, by T. W. Sussams.[13] Mr. Glassey's modestly styled *Groundwork of English Composition*[19] is suitable not only for the fifth form and upwards, but also for the evening school and technical college, and for students preparing for the many professional examinations which demand some little skill in writing and a tincture of literary knowledge. Mr. Pritchard's *Exercises in Interpretation*[23] is a useful addition to his long list of books on the appreciation of literature.

[1] **Living in Boats.** By C. HALL.
[2] **Living in Queer Houses.** By B. G. HARDINGHAM. (3s. net each. Nelson.)
[3] **In the Steps of the Master.** By H. V. MORTON. (Methuen's Modern Classics.) Abridged Edition. (2s. Methuen.)
[4] **The Essays of Elia: Last Essays of Elia; Popular Fallacies.** By CHARLES LAMB. (2s. Nelson.)
[5] **Selections from Lamb and Hazlitt.** Edited by R. W. JEPSON. (The Heritage of Literature Series.) (2s. 6d. Longmans.)
[6] **Laburnum Grove.** By J. B. PRIESTLEY. Retold by L. W. TAYLOR. (Plays Retold Series.) (1s. Oxford University Press.)
[7] **The Winter's Tale.** By WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE. Retold by JOSEPHINE PAGE. (Tales Retold, Second Series.) (10d. Oxford University Press.)
[8] **Henry V.** Edited by R. F. W. FLETCHER.
[9] **As You Like It.** Edited by ISABEL J. BISSON. (The New Clarendon Shakespeare.) (2s. each. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)
[10] **Cameo Plays.** Edited by G. H. HOLROYD. Books VII and VIII. (10d. each. Leeds: Arnold.)
[11] **Story-Tellers of Britain.** By L. DU GARDE PEACH. Vols. 1–3. (2s. 3d. each. University of London Press.)
[12] **Direct English.** By Dr. M. M. LEWIS and A. H. STUART. Books 1, 2 and 3. (2s. 6d. each. Ginn.)
[13] **Everyday English for Young Citizens.** By T. W. SUSSAMS. (2s. 6d. Oxford University Press.)
[14] **The Oxford English Course.** By Dr. L. FAUCETT. Alternative Books 3 and 4. Alternative Book 5 (Teachers' Edition). Adapted by F. G. FRENCH. (Book 3, 1s. 6d. Book 4, 1s. 9d. Teacher's Book 5, 3s. net. Oxford University Press.)
[15] **The Concise Cambridge History of English Literature.** By G. SAMPSON. (15s. net. Cambridge University Press.)
[16] **An Anthology of Nature Poetry.** Made by VIOLET MEYNELL. New Issue. (5s. net. Cape.)
[17] **The White Cliffs.** By ALICE D. MILLER. (2s. 6d. net. Methuen.)
[18] **The Active English Course: a Four-Year Course in English Grammar and Composition.** By G. S. HUMPHREYS and J. C. ROBERTS. Book 3. (3s. 6d. University of London Press.)
[19] **The Groundwork of English Composition.** By S. C. GLASSEY. (4s. Oxford: Clarendon Press.)
[20] **English from the News.** By N. J. M. HILSON. Books 1 and 2. (1s. 3d. each. Grant Educational Co.)
[21] **An Approach to English Literature: for Students Abroad.** By H. B. Drake. Book 3. (2s. 6d. Oxford University Press.)
[22] **Take Pen and Ink: a Handbook of Composition for Middle Forms of Secondary Schools and Higher Forms of Senior Schools.** By E. M. WILKIE. (2s. 6d. Harrap.)
[23] **Exercises in Interpretation.** By F. H. PRITCHARD. (1s. 6d. Harrap.)

GEOGRAPHY TEXT-BOOKS

By L. B. CUNDALL

ALTHOUGH the output of books has been reduced there has never been a more general demand for information about geography. That publishers are alive to this widespread interest is evidenced by the varied character of the books issued each month. There is justifiable optimism in the production of a seventh edition of that fine little classic, *Man and His Work*,[1] whose authors were the first to emphasize the world-wide aspects and human interest of their subject. Now after more than forty years the whole of British teaching is imbued with the authors' ideas of human geography and it will be one of the chief tasks of post-war Germany to understand and adopt the aims and principles which, following the pioneer work

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of Herbertson, have given this country its outstanding importance in the teaching of geography. As might be expected in a country where competitive examinations determine methods of instruction there is usually a map-note book in the monthly list. *A Map Book of Australasia*[2] is a useful summary and covers everything which is likely to crop up in the school certificate examination. Although only eleven pages are devoted to New Zealand, practically all possible questions on this area are covered. In view of the scrappy answers at school certificate stage to questions dealing with this important Dominion it is reasonable to suppose that the time is ripe for the publication of a full and authoritative account of the geography of New Zealand.

Many different methods of instruction are employed in the teaching of geography. One of the best relies on the use of descriptions of specific human activities in different regions. *The Story of Transport*[3] is a reasoned account in simple language of the development of communications throughout the ages in various parts of the world. Although it is mainly suitable for use in the primary school, it contains much that might with advantage be embodied in oral lessons. Some teachers experience difficulty in training junior forms in the use of the atlas. *Can You Tell Me ?*[4] is an attempt to train boys and girls to use an atlas independently with ease and rapidity—an accomplishment which should be more widely encouraged. The questions are not arranged in regions, and the scholar is therefore compelled to range over the whole of the earth's surface. The answers are short and definite, involving no more marking than answers to tests in mental arithmetic. As the object of these sets of questions is not to teach facts but to make pupils familiar with the use of atlases, they may be introduced at any stage, but it is obvious that they will find their most useful employment in the junior form.

The war has stimulated the production of up-to-date wall maps of the war zones. *The Near East and Middle East Map*[5] supplies a long-felt need for lessons in geography, history, and scripture. It covers the area known as the Lands of the Five Seas and will prove of exceptional value in every type of school as well as in the educational establishments of the war services.

It is not always recognized that geography is closely related to physical science, using the fruits of pioneer work in the field to establish the relationship of man to his environment. *The Physics of Blown Sand and Desert Dunes*[6] shows how the solution of geographical problems demands a technique as arduous and exacting as that of more familiar branches of natural science. This standard work deals exclusively with the behaviour of blown sand and the the land forms due to it. It outlines the field observations and laboratory equipment and methods used by Colonel Bagnold in establishing the dependence of dune formation on the ground wind and the type of surface over which it blows. A new method of determining the internal structure of sand accumulations throws a practical light both on their carrying power for motor transport and on their power of water retention. There is a final chapter on *singing sands*, but the chief interest of the book for the professional geographer is in showing how outdoor observations can be used in combination with small scale experiments to establish new principles.

Few if any of the recently published school geography books make any reference to this or any other war. Their descriptions of foreign peoples are non-committal and impersonal. In fact one excellent book[7] for senior and preparatory schools states that " Owing to her commanding position in Western Europe and with such a large number of neighbours it is only natural that Germany should occupy a leading place in European affairs ". Another book[8] gives a first-class description of most of the Asiatic peoples but carefully avoids any reference to their more unpleasant characteristics. Its readers will find nothing of the important industrial developments of the Kuznetsk coalfield and Novosibirsk, nor any reference to Japan's merciless attack on China. One can only surmise that the authors have decided to maintain the objective method of description which is now a characteristic feature of British geography teaching. With the exception of parts of the United States and some of the smaller European democracies none but the countries of the British Commonwealth have succeeded in eliminating jingoism from their geography text-books.

In their third volume the authors of *Man the World Over*[9] state that as " the march of armies cannot alter the basic truths of geography " they " have ignored the cataclysms of the moment ". This is not merely the personal opinion of the authors of an almost perfect example of a modern geography text-book, but may be taken as representing the view of the majority of geography teachers in this country. It is probable that many teachers regard it as a duty to avoid controversial topics and political problems by eliminating personal and national opinions in the presentation of their subject, but even in the works of those who hold uncompromising views it is not possible to find the kind of propaganda which mars the best[10] of the German text-books. Unfortunately there is a very real danger that citizens who have not had the opportunity of learning at school how geographical conditions affect national policies may be unable to form sound opinions on international affairs or on problems of post-war reconstruction.

Of course there are many atlases of current affairs, such as the clear and concise pamphlet on *How the Map has Changed*,[11] but this type of material is useful mainly for visualizing military gains and losses and does little to explain the fundamental problems of political geography. Few books which deal with geography in relation to war and world affairs are suitable for use in school, though the work done in map-reading and local geography in school is of great value in the study of tactics, and there is no doubt that sound strategy must take into account the geographical conditions of the region where military or naval action is impending. To a certain extent, therefore, the normal training of secondary and public schools forms a valuable foundation for the work of officer cadets, but it is unfortunate that so little has been done by the schools to establish a basic knowledge of political geography for the use of those who in after-life may be required to evolve or direct national policy.

There is a definite need for books like *The Eastern Marchlands of Europe*,[12] which comprises materials used in lecture courses on political geography for the Cambridge Geographical Tripos. This book is fully documented and explains in relatively simple language the salient features of the history and social geography of the national groups of Eastern Europe. In due course these unfortunate nations will again be at the international bar, and the ultimate judicial authorities will be the electorates of other nations, not least important those of the English-speaking world. There is room, therefore, for a school text-book of political geography which can be used for general reading in sixth forms.

When the present war ends it is to be hoped that other countries will abandon dreams of national self-sufficiency and world domination, and that they will follow the example of American and British geographers who regard the world as a stage for international co-operation by free peoples. Before this can be done it will be necessary to destroy the idea of racial superiority which has poisoned the mind of the German people. Hitler knows that for political purposes the important question is not what people are but what they believe they are. Most persons are ready to believe that they possess a superior culture, and it is very easy to persuade them that this is due to their ancestry. This is an article of faith in dictator countries and this belief is shared by many who ought to know better in democratic lands. In his book on *The Races of Central Europe*,[13] Dr. Morant has rendered valuable service by showing that the only reliable evidence of men's origins is

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obtained by considering what they are, not what they believe they are. His biological survey shows quite clearly that language is no criterion of race and the differences between the physical characteristics of the people in passing across Europe are usually very slight. In fact there are no such things as " racial frontiers " and the peace of Europe might be assured if it were possible to epitomize the facts of anthropology in pithy slogans to counteract the familiar phrases which suggest that great racial differences exist. When peace is restored it will be necessary to ensure that every European child shall learn the truth regarding the relationships of the peoples of Europe and understand that the greatest racial differences found are almost negligible and that all neighbouring peoples are closely related. The absurdity of all racial conflicts must be clearly demonstrated. Is it too much to hope that representative teachers of history and geography from different lands may be present at the Peace Conference to clear up misconceptions and to establish a common basis for the cultural development of a New World ?

[1] **Man and his Work : an Introduction to Human Geography.** By Dr. A. J. HERBERTSON and F. D. HERBERTSON. Seventh Edition. (3s. Black.)

[2] **A Map-Book of Australasia : for Juniors and the Middle Forms** By A. FERRIDAY. (Paper 1s. 9d. Limp Cloth, 2s. Macmillan.)

[3] **The Story of Transport.** By C. WISE. (The Empire at Work.) (1s. 3d. Oxford University Press.)

[4] **Can You Tell Me ? Reference Exercises on the School Atlas.** By W. O. WRIGHT. (1s. Dent.)

[5] **Philips' Regional War Map of the Near East and the Middle East.** (On Cloth, Rollers and Varnished, or on Cloth dissected to fold, 12s. 6d. Philip.)

[6] **The Physics of Blown Sand and Desert Dunes.** By Lt.-Col. R. A. BAGNOLD. (24s. net. Methuen.)

[7] **(*a*) The British Isles.**
(*b*) Europe.
(*c*) The British Isles and Europe.
By V. C. SPARY and J. A. THORNLEY. (The Conquest Geographies.) (*a*) and (*b*), 2s. each. (*c*), 3s. 3d. McDougall's Educational Co.)

[8] **The Peoples of the World.** By E. J. G. BRADFORD and F. G. Moss. Vol. 4 : The Lands of Eastern Peoples. (Harrap's New Geographical Series.) New Edition, Revised. (2s. 3d. Harrap.)

[9] **Man the World Over.** By C. C. CARTER and H. C. BRENTNALL. Book 3. (3s. 3d. Oxford : Blackwell.)

[10] **Fischer-Geistbeck.** Erdkunde für höhere Lehranstalten. III : Kulturgeographie von Deutschland. By R. BITTERLING and T. OTTO. (Berlin : Verlag R. Oldenbourg.)

[11] **How the Map has Changed, 1938–1940.** By E. W. GILBERT. (6d. net. Philip.)

[12] **The Eastern Marchlands of Europe.** By H. G. WANKLYN. (12s. 6d. Philip.)

[13] **The Races of Central Europe.** By G. M. MORANT. (5s. Allen & Unwin.)

THE SERIAL MAP SERVICE

By J. H. STEMBRIDGE

IT is now generally accepted that geography lies at the basis of history, and that what to-day is a fact of geography may to-morrow become a factor of history. World problems cannot be studied apart from their geographic setting, but even the student finds it difficult to keep abreast of current events. Much more so the average man who wishes to understand their significance. Both need a digest that will give them unbiased information in an easily assimilated form. The *Serial Map Service* (Letchworth Garden City, Herts.), does this. It provides specially drawn maps designed to bring out salient facts and to show their relationship to one another. In a most concise way the maps answer the questions Where ? and Why? But the Service does more than this, for the commentaries emphasize the essential facts and so enable the reader to obtain a grasp of the underlying factors.

The August number of the *Serial Map Service* contains maps and articles dealing with Germany and the U.S.S.R. The commentary on " Germany's Industry " is accompanied by a map entitled " Air Objectives in the Greater Reich." The map is perhaps rather too detailed, but the objectives can be easily located as they are marked in red, and there are also useful cross-references in the text. I should like to have seen a note to the effect that only German occupied territory is included under Poland. Hungary, too, might be more clearly distinguished from the Greater Reich, and Sudetenland indicated, though these details may possibly be of no great importance.

Major Hamish Wilson's article, " Russia Fights On ", is among the best I have read, and it provides an effective background for an understanding of the present campaign. Useful data, illustrated by a simple map, are given concerning the industrial strength of the U.S.S.R. The map is also valuable because it shows the relation of Russia to Spitzbergen, Greenland, and the Western Hemisphere, on the one hand, and to Japan, on the other. The scale shows that Vladivostok, the Pacific terminus of the Trans-Siberian Railway, is only about 500 miles from Tokyo. As most of the houses in the latter city are built of wood, long-range bombers, based on Vladivostok, could reduce it to ashes in a single night. This fact alone should cause Japan's rulers to think twice before they plunge their country into another war.

I personally have subscribed to the *Serial Map Service* since its inception in September, 1939. In my opinion it is of the greatest value not only to historians and geographers, but also to all who wish to take an intelligent interest in world affairs.

THE PRESENT AND THE PAST

By F. J. C. HEARNSHAW, Emeritus Professor of History in the University of London

I

IT is astonishing that, amid the storm and stress of the critical and tremendous days in which we are now living, so many authors have the leisure and the mental detachment necessary for the writing of good books, and also that so many publishers still have the materials and the labour required for their production. The mere composition and publication in excellent style of the dozen books now before me is significant, and that significance is enhanced by a study of the contents of the volumes. For, whether they deal with the present or the past, they all tacitly assume that Britain and the Empire will survive the ordeal through which they are passing ; that they will emerge victorious ; and that there will be no breach of continuity between the past and the future.

The teaching of British history in the old days no doubt was in many respects defective. Unquestionably it gave an insular view of world events. But one lesson, at any rate, it did inculcate impressively and indelibly, namely, that however badly Britain muddled her wars at their beginning she invariably came out triumphant in the end ! The lesson thus taught, whether wholly true or not, has had an incalculably great influence in maintaining the national spirit in the midst of days of gloom and disaster.

II

The majority of the books on my table deal calmly and dispassionately with current affairs. Sir John Marriott's *Tragedy of Europe*,[1] gives a masterly sketch of continental history during the twenty years 1919-39. It surveys the trend of events in the several European States ; examines the causes of the collapse of the democracies and the failure of the League of Nations ; traces the rise of the Dictators ; and describes in vivid terms the steps that led to the final " plunge into the abyss ". To have written so full and finely balanced a narrative of happenings so recent is a great achievement.

J. D. Chambers' *Dictators*[2] illustrates the social origins of Hitler, Mussolini, and Stalin by a study of the circumstances that produced them, or made them possible, compared with the circumstances in which Solon, Caesar, and Cromwell sprang up. The parallels that Mr. Chambers draws are suggestive and illuminating.

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Prof. C. B. Fawcett's *Bases of a World Commonwealth*[3] is concerned with the settlement that will have to be made when the dictators have been defeated. He is profoundly convinced of the necessity for the formation of a Democratic World Union, but he realizes the difficulties that stand in the way of its formation. As an expert geographer he treats in this volume of the physical facts that will have to be taken into account if any sort of a permanent union is to be effected. He looks to a close alliance between the British and American Commonwealths as the basis of any successful federation. This very sober and able book should be carefully read by all who are looking forward to the establishment of a real " new order ".

Dr. Jennings' *British Constitution*[4] is more limited in its scope. It deals solely with our own country, and with that country at the present day. It does for 1941 what Bagehot's notable classic did for 1865. A comparison with the two books reveals the immense changes that have taken place in the past three quarters of a century. Dr. Jennings, however, is not concerned merely to describe the constitution as it exists to-day : he looks forward to the future, pointing out a number of reforms which he considers to be desirable if democracy really is to prevail. Although the book shows some political bias, it is exceptionally ably and well written.

The principles which Dr. Jennings inculcates are implicit in two useful little manuals on civics, namely J. C. Hill's *Introduction to Citizenship*[5] and M. E. Beggs' and D. W. Humphreys' *Government by the People.*[6]

Dr. Stern-Rubarth's *Short History of the Germans*[7]—appropriately bound in black cloth—gives, in the brief compass of 150 pages, a brilliant summary of the history of the German people. The author, a high official of the Weimar Republic and an intimate friend of the great Stresemann, is one of those whom the advent of Hitler drove into exile. He is under no illusions respecting his corrupted and infatuated fellow-countrymen. He describes them as, at the beginning of the Christian era, " savages versus civilization ". His last chapter is headed " A.D. 1933 : the Wheel comes full circle ; savages versus civilization ".

Mr. Victor Cohen's *Masaryk*[8] serves to point the moral of Dr. Stern-Rubarth's story. For the Czecho-Slovak Republic, created and directed by the genius of President Masaryk, was one of the first victims of the renewed savagery of the ever-aggressive Teuton. Mr. Cohen in a sound and able work cleverly sketches the outline of Masaryk's remarkable career against the background of eighty years of eventful European history. No one of goodwill can read this record of fine achievement without registering a vow that Masaryk's life work shall not be allowed to perish.

III

When from the present we turn to the past, we find that books avowedly historical nevertheless have intimate bearings upon the affairs of to-day. For example, Miss E. W. Cohen's *Growth of the British Civil Service*[9]—a scholarly and capable work—traces the steps by which a corrupt service recruited by political patronage and marked by gross inefficiency was converted into our present honourable, if lethargic and unadventurous, bureaucracy. Miss Cohen's study has revealed to her the existence of numerous defects still remaining in the service, and she courageously suggests a number of needed reforms.

Mr. Ward's four small volumes entitled *From Serf to Citizen*[10] sketch the course of British history along novel lines. The first volume outlines the course of the political history from the earliest times to the present day. The remaining three volumes supplement those outlines by giving surveys—increasing in difficulty—of social-life through the ages, of industry and commerce, of art and science, of religion and governmental institutions. The series is well conceived and admirably executed. It may be confidently commended to the attention of adult readers as well as to the diligent study of those younger folk for whom it is primarily intended.

Mr. S. R. Brett's *History of the British Empire*[11] gives a lucid and well-arranged summary of the history of the expansion of Britain. It distinguishes four main periods of development divided by the dates 1783, 1840, and 1914, and in each of the periods it treats the chief colonies and dependencies separately. Altogether it makes a very workmanly compendium.

Mr. M. A. Hennings' *Modern European History*[12] covers the three centuries that culminated in the outbreak of the present war. It treats of the Continent as a whole rather than of the individual states, and its aim is to give " that information about the development of Modern Europe which every one should now possess ". It well fulfils its purpose as its narrative becomes increasingly detailed as it approaches the present day.

Mr. D. C. Somervell's *Modern Britain*[13]—a companion volume to his *Modern Europe* published in 1940—gives a masterly survey of British history during the past seventy years. Particularly valuable are Mr. Somervell's chapters on the twentieth century, suggestively headed " Pre-War ", " War ", " Post-War ", and " Pre-War Again ".

[1] **The Tragedy of Europe.** By Sir JOHN MARRIOTT. (8s. 6d. net. Blackie.)
[2] **Dictators : an Introductory Study in the Social Origins of Dictatorship.** By J. D. CHAMBERS. (4s. net. Nelson.)
[3] **The Bases of a World Commonwealth.** By C. B. FAWCETT. (7s. 6d. net. Watts.)
[4] **The British Constitution.** By Dr. W. I. JENNINGS. (8s. 6d. net. Cambridge University Press.)
[5] **An Introduction to Citizenship.** By J. C. HILL. (The New Approach.) (1s. 9d. Oxford University Press.)
[6] **Government by the People.** By M. E. BEGGS and D. W. HUMPHREYS. (Ppr., 1s. 6d. Limp Cloth, 1s. 10d. Philip.)
[7] **A Short History of the Germans.** By Dr. E. STERN-RUBARTH. (3s. 6d. net. Duckworth.)
[8] **The Life and Times of Masaryk, the President-Liberator : a Biographical Study of Central Europe since 1848.** By V. COHEN. (7s. 6d. net. Murray.)
[9] **The Growth of the British Civil Service, 1780–1939.** By EMMELINE W. COHEN. (10s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)
[10] **From Serf to Citizen.** By W. C. J. WARD. (Book 1, Limp, 2s. 6d. Boards, 2s. 8d. Book 2, Limp, 2s. 8d. Boards, 2s. 10d. Books 3 and 4, Limp, 2s. 10d. each. Boards, 3s. each. Blackie.)
[11] **A History of the British Empire.** By S. R. BRETT. (4s. 6d. Nelson.)
[12] **Modern European History, 1660–1939.** By M. A. HENNINGS. (4s. 6d. University Tutorial Press.)
[13] **Modern Britain, 1870–1939.** By D. C. SOMERVELL. (4s. Methuen.)

INTERNATIONAL UNITY

By Professor F. CLARKE, Director of the University of London Institute of Education

IT may be felt that this striking and characteristic little essay by Mr. Lionel Curtis* reaches a sound conclusion by unsound arguments. The conclusion may be briefly summarized. It is that the pressure of common interests among nations must lead to some form of political union for the furtherance and protection of such interests ; that union is likely to come first and most easily among those nations where the sense of common interest is already strong ; that it must take the form of some central and representative organ of deliberation and *decision* ; and that only that minimum of sovereign powers will be thus centralized which concerns decision and action in the field where the need for unity is most pressing. The practical conclusion drawn from these postulates is a defensive union of the British Commonwealth, with a Federal Government planned to deal only with defence, and so organized that other nations might join as their circumstances and wishes might dictate.

The present attitude of Australia affords an illuminating comment on the project. It is indeed interesting to speculate that, just as the necessities of their respective situations

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led Canada and South Africa to press for the Statute of Westminster, so the necessities of Australia may initiate a counter-move towards some degree of consolidation.

Such is the conclusion. The trouble with the argument by which it is supported is the typical English one of obsession by political categories to the exclusion of sociological ones. How, for instance, is one to reconcile these two statements :

" In 1919 a League was constructed on the model of the British Commonwealth, into which the Commonwealth was incorporated " (p. 24). And :

" That all these composite systems (such as the League) are highly unstable as compared with sovereign States is a fact. This fact is explained by the nature of the bond which unites people in a sovereign State, as distinguishable from the bond which attempts to unite sovereign States in a composite structure " (pp. 35, 36).

If one thinks in the sociological terms of real community instead of in the political terms of formal ' state ' and ' sovereignty ', it becomes clear that in 1919 the Commonwealth was already a close-knit community, a present and historical *reality*. What community, on the other hand, was there to support the elaborate structure of the League ? The difference has little enough to do with sovereignty, but almost everything to do with community.

In fact, all these discussions are bedevilled rather than helped by the elusive spook of national sovereignty that hovers about them. We will not attempt to chase it here, but note only Mr. Curtis' reason for restricting the powers of his Federal Government to defence only. It is to secure —what ? The national sovereignty of each member of the Commonwealth as a real and distinctive *community*, that is, as a sociological fact first and a political one second.

* **Decision.** By L. Curtis. (Ppr., 6d. net. Cloth, 1s. net. Oxford University Press.)

BASIC GEOMETRY

By G. L. PARSONS

THIS book* presents interesting features which are largely due to its difference in outlook from English books covering the same subject-matter. It would in general be true to say that where English text-books attempt to present a type of geometry freed to some extent from the rigid Euclidean pattern, this book attempts to present a modernized version of the Euclidean pattern itself. But there is this difference. Euclid's object and that of the modern English school text-book are the same, *viz.* : the arrangement of facts associated with the space we see, or think we see, around us. In *Basic Geometry* the subject matter is presented as " an ideal logical system " (divorced from spatial concepts) and, to quote the author's words, " the main thing geometry gives us is the ideal of a logical system, and of precise thinking, and some acquaintance with the language in which logical arguments are usually expressed ". Though this detachment from the spatial is to a certain extent negatived by the illustrations, which refer to everyday applications of geometry, the same attitude is maintained throughout.

The subject-matter opens with definitions of the usual terms, including an early definition of similarity in which the " two sides and included angle " case is taken as a fundamental principle to be assured (a substitute Parallel Postulate). Seven Basic Theorems are then introduced ; these are, the other cases of similarity, the isosceles triangle, the angle sum of a triangle, the right bisector of a straight line, the existence and uniqueness of perpendicular from point to line and Pythagoras' theorem. Various corollaries are deduced, congeneral being regarded as a special case of similarity.

Parallels are next introduced (as lines which have no common point) the properties being deduced from similarity, then the usual propositions of circle geometry, followed by constructions (including neat methods for pentagon and decagon). A chapter on areas contains much which is called Mensuration in English books. The idea of continuous variation of a point in a plane is then introduced and leads to discussions of Inequalities and of the usual locus. At the end we return to ten ' everyday ' questions which study of the previous sections in the book is presumed to have made easier to answer. These questions have no connexion with geometrical subject-matter (No. 6, for example, is " Is it ever justifiable to lie to a person who is critically ill ? ") and it is interesting to note that this implies the assumption of a doctrine of " educational transfer ", which is not universally accepted.

This book is, of course, intended for American students, possibly slightly older than those who begin geometry here. It possesses many points of interest for the teacher, but it would manifestly be unsuitable for class-room use in this country.

* **Basic Geometry.** By Prof. G. D. Birkhoff and Prof. R. Beatley. ($1.32. Chicago and New York : Scott, Foresman & Co.)

HUMAN SPEECH—PAST AND FUTURE

By MICHAEL STEWART

PROFESSOR WILSON commences his book[1] with an account of the opinions that have been held as to the origin of language, from the writer of the Book of Genesis to Herder. These authorities, he contends, whether they thought language to be God-given or man-made, erred in exaggerating the separation between man and the world in which he lives. Darwin, in correcting this error, went to the opposite extreme, underestimating man's distinctive consciousness of the world, his power to imagine time beyond his own life and space beyond his own field of movement. Language, Prof. Wilson believes, was developed by man in order to give expression to these peculiar mental powers. This central contention is put forward with vigour and logic, and the result is a book which will command and repay serious study by philosophers and philologists alike. In particular, the judgment on Darwin's contribution to knowledge is an advance on any previous estimate. Philologists, looking at the title of the book, may be disappointed that it contains little about the steps in the fashioning of language and their relation to the other facts of human history ; it is to be hoped that Prof. Wilson will take up this question in a future work.

There is a preface by Bernard Shaw which, as he rightly admits, is an over-rated attraction. The reader is bound to admire the beautiful lucidity of style—Prof. Wilson, by contrast, writes somewhat heavily—but those who have read the prefaces to *Back to Methuselah* and *Pygmalion* need not spend their time on this one. There are some suggestions for a reformed alphabet, with the terrifying recommendation that, had they been adopted, the Shavian output would have been greatly increased.

Dr. Jagger[2] has, for the English language, performed the task which Prof. Wilson left. He describes the origins of English, the sources of its vocabulary, the social and political influences which have worked upon it, the process of its standardization, and the changes which it is undergoing to-day. He rightly draws attention to the loss of dignity and virility from which it is suffering because of its wide use by the middle classes for the discussion of political, social, and other intellectual topics ; the author himself triumphantly avoids this defect.

The latter part of the book is concerned with the use of English outside Britain and with the possibilities of a universal speech. While Prof. Wilson connects language as a whole with the peculiar qualities of human intelligence, Dr. Jagger connects a particular language with the history, politics, and general outlook of the nation which fashioned it. His consequent hostility to a mechanistic view of language leads him to oppose simplified spelling, to reject Esperanto, and to prescribe a strictly limited sphere for

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Basic English. Many students will agree with his conclusions, but he might well have given fuller consideration to the possible emergence of a universal English which, with slight reform of spelling and much enrichment of vocabulary, may in time become the language of the world. Too often, however, those interested in this topic have been hampered by incomplete knowledge of the history and technique of the language; in Dr. Jagger's book they will find the necessary basis of fact ably and attractively presented.

[1] **The Miraculous Birth of Language.** By Prof. R. A. WILSON. (Guild Books No. 213.) (1s. net. Published for the British Publishers' Guild by Dent.)

[2] **English in the Future.** By Dr. J. H. JAGGER. (Discussion Books.) (2s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

THE SERVICES IN WAR AND IN PEACE

By T. LLOYD HUMBERSTONE

PROPAGANDA has become a recognized department of war. This group of books, the first four written, the fifth, in which the illustrations are more important than text, "prepared," by experts, presents to British youth an encouragement to win the war. The silent Navy, not proficient in propaganda, finds an exponent in Vice-Admiral Harper,[1] whose distinguished record of service started as long ago as 1888. "The sea is our life", Admiral Jellicoe said in his message to New Zealand. "If we fail to appreciate its value, the Empire will perish. . . ." This will be true until food in bulk can be transported by air, a far-off day in Admiral Harper's opinion. From the days of Alfred the Great the Navy recapitulates our island history. William the Conqueror succeeded because Harold's fleet was diverted to the East Coast. May history not repeat itself! The largest ship in Henry VII's time cost £15,000, "a somewhat more economical proposition than the leviathans of to-day which cost over £8,000,000". Hawkins, Blake (who made England mistress of the seas), Vernon, Benbow, Boscawen, Hawke, Rodney, Nelson—here the author discontinues the roll of fame because "the work of the Navy in the Great War is fresh in the mind of man . . ."—not of our boys and youths, who should honour the names of Fisher, Jellicoe, Beatty. There follow descriptions, with admirable illustrations, of types of vessels, convoys, training, shipbuilding, life in the Navy.

The Navy is more than an efficient fighting instrument. A ship-bound community, isolated on the wide oceans, living together, and alas! too often in war-time dying together, provides lessons in "social study". Mr. Trystan Edwards,[2] having served for three and a half years during the Great War as an Able Seaman, is qualified to write on the "civilization of the Navy", a great school of character, based on stern discipline. "Manliness and manners" are taught to the roughest characters in an astonishingly small space of time. Petty theft is almost unknown—no need to lock the little "ditty-boxes" containing money and valuables. The bluejacket's regard for "the higher education" is almost pathetic. There is a chapter on Educational Standards. We learn, without surprise, that "the standard of general knowledge among all ratings is constantly advancing". In addition to technical tests for promotion, there are tests of general education. In his final chapter the author foresees after the present war "some kind of national training other than military for the benefit of youth". The Navy will be ready to provide healthful sea-training of a civilian kind.

This illustrated book[3] on the work of the Merchant Navy under peace-time conditions will be welcome in our schools as a reading book. Under war conditions the Merchant Navy faces a sterner task, "adding a new and glorious chapter to its history" as the lifeline of the British people. Fishing, cargo, and passenger ships, machinery, ports, docks, wrecks, and rescues are described in an introduction and seven chapters.

Books on the Royal Air Force need no bush, for the art of flying in peace and war is fascinating. Major Stewart[4] deals with types of aeroplanes and with Royal Air Force training. The photographs are excellently reproduced, and appear to cover the whole subject including "homing pigeons as a means of communication within the scope of the Royal Air Force". The other book,[5] deals with the role of the R.A.F. in war. We are reminded that the German *Luftwaffe* had the great advantages, first, of practical experience in the Civil War in Spain and, secondly, in the earlier years of the war, of numbers. Nevertheless the R.A.F. won the Battle of Britain and "the invasion of which the bombing had been a prelude did not come". This decisive victory was largely the work of youth and our schools are entitled to a share of the credit.

[1] **The Royal Navy at War.** By Vice-Admiral J. E. T. HARPER. (6s. net. Murray & The Pilot Press.)

[2] **British Bluejacket, 1915–1940: a Social Study of the Royal Navy.** By A. TRYSTAN EDWARDS. (2s. net. Simpkin Marshall.)

[3] **Our Merchant Navy.** By S. HOWARD. (2s. Oxford University Press.)

[4] **The Royal Air Force in Pictures, including Aircraft of the Fleet Air Arm.** Prepared by Major O. STEWART. (5s. Country Life.)

[5] **The Royal Air Force at War.** By the STAFF of *The Aeroplane*. Book designed by W. BUCHAN. Fifth Edition. (6s. net. Murray and The Pilot Press.)

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF CRIME

By S. B. LUCAS

THIS important piece of research* received, the author tells us, the financial backing of the Leon Bequest Committee of the University of London. Their generosity has been justified, for we have here a volume which will be of great use not only to the student of criminology, but also to educationists and social reformers generally.

The first part of the book deals with the structure and interpretation of the English criminal statistics. These are based mainly upon two fundamental aspects, being partly statistics of *persons* who have committed crimes and partly statistics of *crimes* committed. Dr. Mannheim points out that only a perfect combination of both systems would enable the investigator to state how many persons of a certain age, sex, &c., have committed so many crimes of a certain type, in a given time, within a given area, and he comments at some length on the fact that the gap between the number of "Crimes Known to the Police" and "Persons Proceeded Against" has considerably widened during the period under review. He also dwells on the precautions which must be taken in attempting comparisons between one country and another in the matter of crime. It would be utterly misleading, for instance, to compare the bare figures for convictions of murder in England and Germany without taking into account that the English conception 'Murder' is much wider than the German *Mord*. Again, the question arises how far changes in the substantive criminal law may influence the statistical position within the country concerned. The layman may be inclined to think that the introduction of more severe punishments for a certain type of crime will inevitably result in a decrease in the number of crimes of that type. But the layman may miscalculate certain tendencies that affect, not the actual amount of crime, but its statistical tangibility. There may be an increase in the number of prosecutions and convictions, even in spite of a decrease in the actual amount of crime.

In particular, the statistics of juvenile delinquency call forth this comment: "In the field of *Juvenile Delinquency* all our objections against the value of any kind of criminal statistics are still more valid. One may almost be tempted to say—with slight exaggeration—that this part of the *Criminal Statistics*, far from being a reliable source of information

* **Social Aspects of Crime in England between the Wars.** By Dr. H. MANNHEIM. (18s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

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as to the extent and development of juvenile delinquency, can be regarded only as a means of observing the attitude of the public and the police toward the various possibilities of dealing with young lawbreakers. In other words, statistics of juvenile delinquency can do little more than indicate the varying degree of willingness on the part of the public and the police to bring this category of delinquents before the Juvenile Courts ".

After this introductory survey, the author gets down to his real subject in Part II. He first indicates briefly some of the chief tendencies arising out of the last war. The craving for expensive stimuli as substitutes for the war fever, and the lack of money to obtain such equivalents in a legitimate way, coupled with the attitude of men expecting to return to a " country fit for heroes to live in " and the sudden fall in wages after the coming of peace, all had their influence. Diminution of respect for the property of the State also led to stealing which was regarded as ' only scrounging '. The coming of the motor-car led to an increase in crimes against property, such as street robberies and smash-and-grab raids.

Various crimino-sociological aspects are then dealt with under such headings as Unemployment and Strikes, Alcoholism, Methods of Business Administration, Gambling, and Juvenile Delinquency. Of these the last two will probably demand the most attention from our readers. Every one knows that gambling has been one of the most prolific sources of petty crime in England. But it is well to be reminded once again of the complicated history of gambling legislation ; of the theory that gambling works as an antidote against criminal tendencies, and that without it many people would resort to more criminal forms of excitement ; of court reports, on the other hand, that illustrate the close connexion between gambling and crime ; and of the dangers of automatic gambling machines and the devastating effects of the football-pool mania.

The two chapters on Juvenile Delinquency together take up about a quarter of the whole book, and they include hitherto unpublished records of 606 boys and 411 girls who have been sent to Borstal in the course of the past twenty or twenty-five years. These personal cases deserve detailed consideration as being fairly representative of the causes and treatment of delinquency. The influence of street trading and other unsuitable employment is also discussed —" the boy street trader of 1912 may easily have become the young hooligan of 1920 ".

Much more might be said, but this is probably enough to indicate the value of the volume.

PHYSICAL TRAINING

By A. GRAY

AMONG an interesting selection of books dealing with physical education, *The Physical Training Teachers' Legal Rights and Responsibilities*[1] is one which will arouse interest in much wider spheres than the title suggests. Here is no indigestible law treatise, but an instructive and readable publication. The wider aspects of education and the increase in out-of-school activities have long called for a clarification of the extent of the teacher's responsibility in case of accident. Those who have watched court cases with growing concern and uneasiness, realizing that the general public daily grows more " compensation conscious ", will find considerable help. The questions of liability of individuals and authorities, of insurance and sick pay are all explained. No hard-and-fast rule can be laid down on what constitutes negligence, but clear indications of what to expect under certain conditions, based on the findings in recent law cases, are given. The need for constant care and vigilance is emphasized, but the " common-sense " interpretation of the regulations revealed by the summary of these cases is most reassuring.

Not every one will agree with the method of catching for certain vaults, or admit the suitability of every activity suggested in *Vaulting for Women and Girls*,[2] but in the hands of the fully trained gymnast it should serve as a useful collection of technical notes for advanced work. Had the preliminary and pure vaults been arranged in order of progression for teaching purposes and the development of the one from the other clearly shown, it might have become a handbook to recommend to certificated teachers with advanced physical training as their special subject.

Games to Play with Children[3] contains nothing which has not been better said elsewhere. Some of the games described are old favourites, one or two are singularly unpractical and others, even in the most experienced hands, quite dangerous. The would-be-helpful notes on marching and formations are strangely at variance with modern teaching methods.

Keeping Fit for Boys by F. J. C. Marshall,[4] a series of metaphors, word-pictures and amusing illustrations, is a happy combination of practical hygiene, anatomy, physiology, dietetics, chemistry, and first-aid. The suggested experiments which conclude each chapter are simple but convincing, and are sufficiently intriguing to be attractive. Unfortunately some of them must, together with the calorie-producing meals, await a post-war world. The " tricks worth trying " should make any modern boy take off his jacket and in the new-found interest of " driving his own machine " he will probably forgive the author for his little moral homilies.

A Book of Physical Education Tables : a Graded Course for Pupils, 11–16 Years, by F. J. C. Marshall and E. Major,[5] and *Physical Education in Boys' Schools* by Marshall and W. Russell Rees,[6] form a satisfying post-syllabus combination. There is ample material in the former and, if chosen with discretion and adapted where necessary, suitable work for all types of schools should be found. The latter in its revised form is a comprehensive text-book eminently suitable for the training college student. Emphasis throughout is on the necessity for careful progression, be it in exercises, games, agility or vaults. The inclusion of prone land-drill in the Swimming Appendix will probably meet strong criticism, and the teacher whose water practice periods are limited to thirty minutes will know better than to spend any of this time on land practices which can be done equally well elsewhere.

[1] **The Physical Training Teachers' Legal Rights and Responsibilities.** By C. E. Bridges and D. E. Bridges. (3s. 6d. Foyle.)
[2] **Vaulting for Women and Girls.** By Cicely M. Read and Beatrice Jones. Revised and Enlarged. (2s. Ling Physical Education Association.)
[3] **Games to Play with Children.** By Joan M. Oliver. (" The Woodcraft Way " Series, No. 22.) (6d. Forum Publishing Co.)
[4] **Keeping Fit for Boys : a Health Book for Senior Boys.** By F. J. C. Marshall. (2s. 6d. Blackie.)
[5] **A Book of Physical Education Tables : a Graded Course for Pupils, 11–16 Years.** By F. J. C. Marshall and E. Major. (3s. 6d. University of London Press.)
[6] **Physical Education in Boys' Schools : a Text-Book for Training College Students and Teachers.** By F. J. C. Marshall and W. Russell Rees. Second and Revised Edition. (7s. 6d. net. University of London Press.)

MODERN LANGUAGE THRILLS AND THRILLERS

By VERNON MALLINSON

IT is heartening to have under consideration such a varied list as this, a full twelve months after the gloomy prophets were predicting hard times ahead for the school text-book. Texts in French, German, Spanish and Italian steadily roll in, and with few exceptions are of a uniformly high standard in authorship, editorship, and production alike. American editions of Spanish texts are still perhaps too dearly priced to make a real bargain in these hard times, but for those with money and enough to spare they are well worth the extra shilling if only for the durability of binding and beauty in production. They are a joy to handle.

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As to subject-matter, this mixed bag of mine runs through the whole gamut of emotions. If you liked *Night Train to Munich* or *All This and Heaven Too* when you saw them on the screen, then you'll find at least one French and one Spanish reader handling no less expertly a similar theme; as your middle school is now more than ever air-minded, it will lap up the romantic story turning on episodes in the life of Blanchard; if your particular brand of wit is 'anecdotal', there is an excellent Italian reader to eke it out[1]; and, if finally your sober concern is the pursuit of knowledge, you may read and digest Luther and Bismarck or try out yet another French course for schools.

Let us make a start with the courses. Dr. Hedgcock in the third and final part of his *Chemin du Français*[2] ably lives up to the reputation he has gained as a thorough and practical teacher. He revises the work done in Parts I and II and then gives readings in the history of France up to 1939. The Whitmarsh and Jukes *Advanced French Course*[3] is highly suitable for sixth forms and university freshmen, and equally as thorough and commendable in plan and arrangement as Mr. Whitmarsh's earlier books for S.C. forms. Dr. Alberse gives us a practical *Chemical French Reader*[4] intended for the science student wishing to read scientific works not yet translated into English. A full vocabulary is added. Students in American schools who do not study French so thoroughly as we do, who live so much nearer to France, will welcome this text.

Bismarck's style, I am afraid, is as careless, almost, as Hitler's; and Gibson's critically annotated edition of *Gedanken und Erinnerungen*[5] must be considered more important to the historical student than to a student of the German language. Sixth forms and university students will profit by having it at hand. Luther's *Sendbrief* too, I imagine, will have a small select following. It is his answer to objections raised by angry opponents to his translation of the Epistle to the Romans (1534).

In the 'reader' class Messrs. Harrap and the University of London Press are well ahead. Mr. P. G. Wilson's growing list of French texts is having all the success it deserves, and these latest stories can do nothing but enhance his reputation for putting in the hands of the middle-school boy or girl just the right fare to please. *Les Loups entre Eux*[6] is a Secret Service story of the *Night Train to Munich* or *The Lady Vanishes* class. No kidnapped person to be rescued this time, but a special preparation for treating gas-masks in warfare to be stolen back from the Hun. There is a pleasing and practical heroine. *La Première Aviatrice*[7] has the life of Blanchard, the first real aviator, as a background, and is charmingly told. It should be a real favourite in girls' schools. *Les Surprises du Cinéma*[7] will go down well with the lads; an ingenious invention in the realm of cinematography arouses the cupidity of a gang of crooks. The old, old story, but refreshingly up-to-date.

Messrs. Harrap have an able edition of Peter Mattheus' *Robby Kämpft um seine Freiheit.*[8] There could have been no happier choice, for Mattheus has long been a favourite with German children. The action is swift and the incidents exciting. Good value for middle forms, who will easily read themselves into Robby's predicament. A Harrap edition of Niccodemi's short one-act play, *Il Poeta*[9] also deserves attention from those few schools teaching Italian. The language is simple, and the play could be started after a first term of elementary grammar and translation.

The three Spanish texts under consideration are all excellent. *En Guatemala*[10] provides loosely-connected topical readings in the history of the country. The Spanish is quite easy, but, apart from the fact that it will rightly appeal most to Americans, it has a faint flavour of the guide-book. *Doña Perfecta*[11] is a charming adaptation, with basic vocabulary, of Faldós' famous love-story. It will be eagerly devoured by fifth and sixth forms with a sound knowledge of Spanish behind them. There are a useful appendix of notes, and exercises on syntax. *Luces de España*[12] is a collection of short readings on famous men in Spanish history. The historical background is well filled in; a useful addition at least to the upper school modern languages library list.

I have left to the last the odds and ends; not that I mean this in a derogatory sense, but simply that the authors and publishers either stick to the well-defined formulae for text-book writing, or severely discipline themselves and write 'down' to their pupils. Dent deserves first place for the amazing cheapness and sound quality of his texts. There is a highly amusing collection of twelve short plays in German[13] written by the authors especially for middle forms. The illustrations are more amusing still. Isabel Hawkes' *Douze Histoires*[14] is amusing, if second-rate, fare for second-year forms. Miss Jack (Blackie) succeeds rather better with *La Roncelle*[15] by being more direct and fresh in appeal. Her book is intended for quite young children and is told almost exclusively in the present tense. Vocabularies and lists of useful phrases head each chapter. It will be most useful in the prep. department.

[1] **Raccontini : a Graded Italian Reader.** By V. CIOFFARI and J. VAN HORNE. (1s. 6d. Heath.)

[2] **Le Chemin du Français : an Organized French Course in Three Parts.** By Dr. F. A. HEDGCOCK. Part 3. (4s. Bell.)

[3] **Advanced French Course.** By W. F. H. WHITMARSH and C. J. JUKES. (7s. 6d. Longmans.)

[4] **Chemical French Reader.** Selected and Edited, with Notes and Vocabulary, by J. D. ALBERSE. (2s. 3d. Heath.)

[5] **Bismarck : Gedanken und Erinnerungen.** An Abbreviated and Critically Annotated Edition by A. M. GIBSON. (7s. 6d. Cambridge University Press.)

[6] **Les Loups entre Eux.** By C. ROBERT-DUMAS. Edited by B. YOUNG. (1s. 3d. University of London Press.)

[7] **La Première Aviatrice de France,** by JEANNE D'UHART DE ROQUES, **et Les Surprises du Cinéma,** by H. PELLIER and M. MAINFROY. Edited by A. LEE and R. E. STEPHENS. (The London Modern Language Series.) (1s. 3d. University of London Press.)

[8] **Robby Kämpft um seine Freiheit : die Geschichte einer Entführung.** By P. MATTHEUS. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, Exercises and Vocabulary by Dr. LILIAN L. STROEBE and Dr. RUTH J. HOFRICHTER. (Harrap's Modern Language Series.) (2s. 6d. Harrap.)

[9] **Poeta : Commedia in un Atto.** By D. NICCODEMI. Edited, with Introduction and Notes by E. I. SLATER. (2s. Harrap.)

[10] **En Guatemala : Lecturas Comfuestas y arregladas.** By C. CASTILLO and C. F. SPARKMAN. (The Heath-Chicago Spanish Series.) (1s. 6d. Heath.)

[11] **Doña Perfecta.** By P. B. FALDÓS. Adapted by W. F. BYESS and W. E. STIEFEL. (3s. 6d. Heath.)

[12] **Luces de España.** By M. ROMERA-NAVARRO. (4s. 6d. Harrap.)

[13] **Five-Minute Sketches in German : a Collection of Plays for Use in the Class-room.** By H. BENTON and D. MATTAM. (1s. 6d. Dent.)

[14] **Douze Histoires.** By ISABEL HAWKS. (Dent's Modern Language Series.) (9d. Dent.)

[15] **La Roncelle.** By J. JACK. (7d. Blackie.)

NEW GERMAN MEDIAEVAL TEXTS

By Prof. EDNA PURDIE, Bedford College, London.

MR. BOSTOCK'S edition of *Der arme Heinrich** is a very appropriate and attractive opening number to a new series of German mediaeval texts—a series which will be welcomed by all students of German literature in this country and which has been planned with an eye to their particular needs. The grace and charm of Hartmann's tale, its simplicity and extreme artistic skill, make this text an admirable introduction to any study of that period of intense poetic creation, at the turn of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, which is one of the major glories of German literature. There are fortunately many who still believe that any view of German literature which neglects the achievements of the greater poets of the Hohenstaufen

* **Der Arme Heinrich : A Poem.** By H. VON OUWE. The Critical Text of Erich Gierach, with Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by J. KNIGHT BOSTOCK. (German Mediaeval Series.) (9s. net. Oxford : Blackwell.)

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era is lamentably incomplete. But there are no doubt some, even among these, who are daunted by the initial difficulties in persuading others to discover the beauty of poetic works written in Middle High German. For them, and for others to whom the obstacle of an unfamiliar stage of the language may seem formidable, Mr. Bostock has provided with imagination and skill. The Introduction, commentary, and vocabulary will enable any reader who knows modern German to enjoy the poem with ease and to appreciate its characteristic features; while for the student keen to know more of mediaeval poetry, or of Hartmann von Aue and his generation, he has provided in addition a critically selected bibliography. A short account of the poet's life and works is followed in the Introduction by an interesting and suggestive section on his language and style, and by a brief discussion of the character, possible source, MS. tradition and metrical features of *Der arme Heinrich* itself. The text, pleasingly presented in readable form, is accompanied by full and useful footnotes; thus the reader, when he needs their help, can proceed without the interruption of turning to a later section. The vocabulary at the end is also arranged with an eye to speed and convenience; at the same time, it contains ample references to standard works on syntax and grammar, which are cited in full in the Bibliography and can thus be consulted quickly and easily if fuller details are required on any particular point. The edition is admirably suited both to the beginners whom the editor had in mind and to the more advanced students who will take advantage of his skill in reference and allusion. It is to be hoped that teachers in schools as well as in universities will feel drawn to make use of so attractive a volume to rouse the interest of keen pupils in those narratives of physical and spiritual adventure with which the mediaeval poets of Germany still grip the modern reader.

RECHT IST WAS DEM VOLKE NÜTZT (?)

By VERNON MALLINSON

IN this close analysis of the Nazi revaluation of German literature,* Professor Atkins has produced a timely and scholarly book, packed tight with evidence and quotations of chapter and verse that no Nazi could refute. Inevitably we are forced to the conclusion that only that is good literature in Nazi eyes which is useful to the Party; that pure literary merit counts for little compared with the furtherance of the new national and racial ideas; that all literature must be subordinated to the interests of the Nazi community.

" Too many generalities are written about things German ", says Prof. Atkins; " the aim here is above all to give documented evidence—to let the Nazis speak for themselves ". And so, tracing events from the seizure of power in 1933 and the growth of the myth that an intrinsically worthless literature had been foisted upon the unsuspecting German by the unscrupulous Jewish-controlled press, we are piloted carefully and clear-sightedly through the sad morass. Though he admits a disproportionate Jewish influence in the German literary world of the pre-Hitler period, Prof. Atkins rightly insists on the international popularity of these writers and stresses Thomas Mann's reputation as definitely not manufactured by Jews. He shows how eminent German critics lauded what a few years later they were to condemn; he accuses them out of their own mouths of deliberate falsification; he points scornfully the finger at the new ideals so wordily phrased in the new Nazi vocabulary of the years 1933–37:

" We understand ", writes Langebucher, " by ' national ' literature every poetic utterance contained within the living space of the German people, which springs from its reality, from the foundation of its being, from its fate. To seek a superficial relationship is not enough; the deeper spiritual relation of the poet to the life of his people is a self-evident condition, and that again means that only men of our blood can interpret our nature, portray our character and mirror our fate."

Who exactly are these " men of our blood " ? Nazi criticism briefly dismisses Schiller as the heroic poet and hails Klapstock as a patriot who " breaks through the humanistic obsessions of enlightenment in favour of a ' national ' consciousness "; Herder " anticipated many of the ideas which have become reality to-day "; Hölderlin is " the seer and herald of a recaptured national unity and national soul "; Kleist and Hebbel are true Germanic militant types; but Hauptmann must be dismissed contemptuously—" he pushed forward into regions of ' national ' feeling, but he remained too firmly dominated by his feeling of social pity ".

And so it follows that to show such sympathy with death as Thomas Mann shows in *Der Zauberberg* is a sign of decadence. " The transition to Jewry is furnished by the brothers Heinrich and Thomas Mann—their father was a merchant and senator, but their mother Portuguese and therefore possibly not without Jewish and Negro blood, and they both married Jewesses " (!)

In like manner, Heine's prose " spread like acid and poison, for it made the German unsure of himself ". Bartels is of the opinion that " the only colossal things about Heine are his vanity and his impudence, and colossal is the stupidity of the German people, which so long permitted him to be foisted upon it as one of its great poets ".

Yet what of Goethe ? Nazi criticism deals fumblingly here. Because he must fit in somewhere he is discovered to be the forerunner of the new racial doctrines; Mephistopheles was obviously intended as a characterization of the Jew, " Faust ", is " our essential character, the ' eternal ' which, after every recasting of our soul, dwells in the new form. He (Goethe) became thereby, as no other German, the guardian and keeper of our national genius ".

So the sad story unfolds itself. In the post-Hitler period, I for one recommend *German Literature through Nazi Eyes* as a compulsory text in all German High Schools and Universities.

* **German Literature Through Nazi Eyes.** By Prof. H. G. ATKINS. (6s. net. Methuen.)

SOME WAR-TIME THINKING

By T. RAYMONT

THE four books here to be considered, though differing widely in some respects, have one feature in common. The authors share the conviction that winning the war may once more end in disillusionment unless we also, as the saying goes, win the peace. They therefore believe that hard fighting must be accompanied by hard thinking. The enemy has promulgated his " new order ", of which it has truly been said that it is not new and is not order. We of the democracies, say all these writers in effect, must have in view a kind of settlement which shall really be new and shall really make for order. The education of the people, it may be remarked, is a concrete example, second to none in importance, of the necessity of a new order. In their own diabolical way the Nazis have shown themselves perfectly well aware of this fact. Part of our task is to devise a better way.

The title of Mr. Michael Roberts' new book[1] is meant to convey that all is not well with the democracies, and that the first step toward sure recovery is to understand the malady. How far the alleged decay of Western civilization, with its dwindling populations and its irresponsible pursuit of pleasure, is a reason for serious disturbance it is the author's purpose to inquire. He finds the symptoms of decay more widespread but less ominous than he expected. He is no pessimist, but he has a warning for democracy. It is not that democracy has failed, but that it has tried to produce by political action results which can be achieved only by moral and physical effort. The masses, having secured certain rights, must accept corresponding

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obligations. If they take away the privileges of an aristocracy or plutocracy, they must assume the responsibilities that went with those privileges. Science has wrought marvels, but we need to recognize that authority and tradition are no less valuable than experiment and scepticism. At this point some readers will begin to shake their heads, but, if they read with the care which the book certainly demands, they will find that the author puts up a good case. They will probably prefer Mr. Ernest Barker's warm commendation of the book in *The Spectator* to the contemptuous sneer bestowed upon it by Mr. Leonard Woolfe in *The New Statesman*. By the way, they will not be surprised to find Mr. Roberts holding that some of our new educators are apt to forget how much they themselves owe to the discipline and the conventions which they despise.

In her new book entitled *Ideals and Illusions*,[2] Dr. Susan Stebbing also begins on a note of anxiety, though she is more careful than Mr. Roberts not to imply that such anxiety is felt by all classes. During the past twenty-five years, she writes, many of us—by which she really means the thoughtful few among the older folk—have become, for the first time, uneasily aware of failure in our national life, and the war has now made the position plainer than ever. The causes of failure are many, but Dr. Stebbing confines herself to the one with which her philosophical equipment enables her to deal effectively—our unwillingness to make definite to ourselves what we believe to be worth the seeking, the ends which make life worth living. Never was there a time when the sorry scheme of things so much needed remoulding to bring it nearer to our heart's desire. But what is our heart's desire ? If we fail to think steadily in this quest we shall, says the author, fail in our task. We shall also fail, she adds, if we show no tenderness toward the traditions of our past. In this book she leaves her professorial chair and seeks to convince the plain man that certain familiar arguments and cherished opinions are "muddled" and do not "make sense". She retains, however, the philosophic habit of explaining her own position by attacking somebody else's. For example, she explains the distinction between idealism and realism by showing that Prof. E. H. Carr's views on the subject are "just a muddle"; and her trouncing of Mr. H. L. Mencken's "foolish arguments against democracy", based upon a denial that all men are equal, gives her the opportunity of defining accurately the kind of equality required for democracy. In one of the best passages in the book, the author says she sees no evidence that people to-day fail oftener than those of the previous generation in doing what they believe to be right, but she does see terrifying evidence of a lowering of moral standards, so many people having partly abandoned the Christian code of action, without putting anything in its place, and without even seeing the need for doing so. More people, says Dr. Stebbing, support the ideal of democracy than are aware of what it entails. Hers is a remarkable book, well worth the attention of teachers and of social workers generally.

In his booklet[3] advocating the formation of an international university, Prof. G. W. Keeton, Director of the New Commonwealth Institute, justly remarks upon the futility of waiting until the fighting stops before launching an educational offensive. A preamble which seems disproportionately long leads up to the great idea that never before has Britain enjoyed such a unique opportunity of world leadership. If by her example she has saved Europe, she must rebuild Europe by a process of re-education. The time to begin is now, when Britain is the home of exiled Governments, when we have an international air-force, an international navy, something of an international army, and, besides all these, exiled scholars and students from the oppressed nations. Miracles will not happen when the fighting ceases, but the prompt formation of an international university, pledged to teach the lessons of history, will, Prof. Keeton urges, be an important step toward the achievement of a world commonwealth.

There remains to be noticed a straightforward, sincere, and able piece of writing, addressed by a trade unionist to the masses of our population. In this small book[4] the secretary of the Civil Service Clerical Association puts people on their guard against insidious Nazi attempts to undermine British morale. Even if we have no fifth column worth troubling about, we have, to use a phrase of Mr. Julian Huxley's in his notable contribution to *The Hibbert Journal*, a sixth column of the hesitant and the appeasers, of people who ask—what does it matter to me who wins—what have I to lose anyway ? Mr. Brown, though keenly sensitive to the inequalities and injustices that mark our social life, shows with equal clearness and force that rich and poor alike have an enormous stake in the outcome of this war. Much of his book may fairly be regarded as an essay in popular education, and as such it deserves a wide circulation.

[1] **The Recovery of the West.** By M. ROBERTS. (12s. 6d. net. Faber & Faber.)
[2] **Ideals and Illusions.** By L. SUSAN STEBBING. (8s. 6d. net. Watts.)
[3] **The Case for an International University.** By Prof. G. W. KEETON. (6d. net. Watts.)
[4] **What Have I to Lose ?** By W. J. BROWN. (2s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

SCIENCE *VERSUS* MATERIALISM

By W. G. S. ADAMS Warden of All Souls College, Oxford

THIS is a challenging book.* The title, "*Science* versus *Materialism*", indicates that it is a book on a subject of deep philosophic and scientific interest. The way of attack is by asking the question : Is materialism the only reality ? Materialism is, as the writer says, a theory about the nature of matter. The materialist declares that it is in the nature of matter unaided to bring about all the things which we can observe or experience. This view the writer challenges and claims that matter unaided cannot do some of those things which materialists attribute to it. The evidence is drawn from many fields of scientific observation and thought. The author is the Pender Professor of Electrical Engineering at University College, London, and much of the book is an examination of the views of schools of physicists and chemists. But the evidence from biology as well as from the physico-chemical sciences comes under review, and the author acknowledges his debt to workers in the fields of science, other than his own special field, with whom he has discussed this fundamental question of the nature of matter. The work is primarily a review and examination of scientific evidence, but the writer is also by nature a philosopher and is familiar with both ancient and modern philosophical thought. Whether or not the reader is satisfied by the evidence and convinced by the argument, the wide range of treatment is stimulating and suggestive, and will stir new and stubborn questionings.

The great question, and it is a very old question, is what is the nature of matter and therefore what is materialism ? Science in its different fields is continually enlarging knowledge of the nature of matter, but we are still far from a complete answer. What is the relation of matter to life ? Does life emerge from matter—and how ? There have been different schools of what is called materialistic thought : the mechanistic school, the emergent school, and we may even speak of the idealistic school of materialism. At the mechanistic end of the list are those who find, or expect to find, the secret of life and development in terms of a physico-chemical mechanism, the organic proceeding out of the inorganic and the universe being interpreted in terms of a great mechanical order. The emergent school stress the evolutionary process and the development of the higher forms of life from the lower, and the emergence of the moral and religious life of man and society from an earlier or more primitive material order. Akin to this is the idealistic view of matter which regards matter as having within it the source of life and thought, all the potential

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qualities being inherent in the undeveloped matter. Over against such schools of thought is that which regards matter as in itself without form or determination or life. It is simply the stuff which is shaped by the mind or spirit. Ideas and forms enter into and determine and shape the substance of matter.

Science has brought and is bringing much new evidence on the nature of matter. This has to be weighed and valued, related, and integrated, and often freed from early dogmatisms. Slow as it may be, gradually the process of reconstructing our view of matter and of life proceeds. The task is one in which we yet only see darkly, but our perspectives are getting clearer and the interplay of science and philosophy on one another is all to the good. Here again in this book we have a scientist reviewing the evidence and conscious that the materialist theories are not enough. They leave too much unanswered. And it is because this book is written largely in a Socratic vein, asking questions and, often with playful irony in parable and dialogue, helping the reader across stony and difficult ground to green pastures, and because, too, of its refreshing modesty, that we commend it as a stimulating and honest study of a very abstruse and even mysterious subject.

* **Science *versus* Materialism.** By Prof. R. O. KAPP. (10s. 6d. net. Methuen & Co.)

UNIVERSITY BIOLOGY

By RICHARD PALMER, Lecturer in Education, University of Liverpool.

IN most fields of knowledge the teacher finds himself on the horns of a dilemma. He needs to ' get over ' the general principles of his subject, but to give these principles actuality he must refer to particulars. He must, in Whitehead's words, get his pupils " to see the wood *by means of* the trees ". For example, the teacher of biology must illustrate the principles of his science by reference to actual organisms, and the teacher of geography must place his phenomena of erosion, or rain-shadow, or location of industry, or what you will—in particular countries. One way of doing this is to plan one's treatment round one's general principles, and dodge about over the field of particulars, picking out one here and one there as they happen to be needed for purposes of illustration. But here lies the dilemma: countries and organisms are organic wholes; and can be understood only if they are treated as such. An account of the principles of geography may refer to particular winds or particular coal-mines, but miss the integration of human activities and total environment which constitutes the region or the country. An account of the principles of biology may illustrate a point here and a point there with bits and pieces of particular organisms, but lose touch with the fact that the organism is a whole, and that none of its functions can be treated in isolation.

Thomas Henry Huxley, who laid the foundations of biology teaching in this country, was well aware of this dilemma. His remedy was the ' type ' system, which has become the standard method of treatment of first year biology in our universities. The ' types '—frog, rabbit, crayfish, and the rest—carefully chosen for their purpose, are treated as organic wholes, but, in showing how they live and work, the principles of the subject are brought out.

That at least is the type system at its best—as Huxley himself used it. But human beings have a perennial tendency to treat means as if they were ends—in this case to cram home the anatomy of the type—which is so readily examinable—and forget the biological principles which it was intended to illustrate. One test of good biological teaching—and of a good text-book—is the extent to which the rabbit or the frog or the tapeworm are taught to know their place in the scheme of teaching.

On this test, Prof. Potter's book[1]—which is roughly of the standard of a first year university text-book in this country—scores only moderately well. For example, two early chapters are devoted respectively to the bullfrog and the rat, but these accounts are largely anatomical, much of the physiology being reserved for a separate chapter later in the book. The same detachment of the type from the principles which it should illustrate is found in the treatment of some of the great groups. For example, there is a chapter on the locust, but only a single page on insects in general. Apart from these faults in planning, which could be illustrated further, the book has many good points, though none of great originality.

The other three books under review are intended mainly for more advanced students. Prof. White's text-book of genetics[2] contains a very useful account of recent American work in pure genetics—though non-American research and practical applications are somewhat neglected. Dr. McDougall has written a clear and stimulating account of ecological principles,[3] and British students will gain much from it, in spite of the fact that many of the examples are naturally drawn from American habitats. Lastly, there is Dr. Nellie Eales' useful little book on practical histology and embryology.[4] Zoology is a craft as well as an intellectual discipline, and zoologists look back with affection on the masters (and mistresses) with whom they served their apprenticeship. In this book Dr. Eales has brought together the fruits of her wide experience in the practical teaching of histology and embryology. University students, from the first year onwards, will find it an excellent guide to a field in which practical text-books are often inadequate.

[1] **Essentials of Zoology: Emphasizing Principles of Animal Biology.** By Prof. G. E. POTTER. (18s. net. Kimpton.)
[2] **Principles of Genetics.** By Prof. E. GRACE WHITE. (12s. 6d. net. Kimpton.)
[3] **Plant Ecology.** By Dr. W. B. MCDOUGALL. Third Edition, Thoroughly Revised. (14s. net. Kimpton.)
[4] **Practical Histology and Embryology.** By Dr. NELLIE B. EALES. (3s. 6d. net. Macmillan.)

BOOKS FOR THE AIR-MINDED—AND OTHERS

By Dr. A. H. STUART, Headmaster, Day Technical School, Hackney Technical Institute

It's " Please to walk in front, sir ",
When the drums begin to roll.

KIPLING'S verses describing the attitude of the general public to soldiers in peace and war are recalled by the attention now being given to engineering and allied subjects. The cry has gone up for aeroplanes, more aeroplanes, and still more aeroplanes, for men (and women) to make them, equip and maintain them, and for others to fly them, and—last but by no means least—for men to navigate them. In the collection of books here reviewed we have something for everybody engaged on this gigantic effort of securing and keeping aerial supremacy.

The Government has shown itself alive to the importance of personal contacts between the men and women who make our aircraft and the pilots who operate them, and it is fitting therefore that our books should start with workshop practice and end with aerial navigation.

In *Introduction to Engineering*[1] we have a happy bridge between the many popular (often too popular) books on the subject and the serious technical exposition. Before dealing with the internal combustion engine and its applications to the automobile and aeronautical industries, the author has introduced a very readable account of the steam-engine. There is much to be said for a study of the steam-engine as an introduction to the study of thermo-dynamics and of reciprocating engines generally, and the first chapter of this book, which includes a brief account of impulse and reaction turbines, thus affords a sound foundation for what follows.

Workshop Ways[2] is intended for those men and women who are entering the engineering industry from other and often quite different occupations, as their contribution to the war effort, and who therefore must absorb in a minimum of time the essentials of their new work. The chapter on

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the reading of workshop drawings is particularly good, the illustrations clearing up those difficulties which are so common among beginners.

It may sound paradoxical to say that engineering, like so many other departments of the modern world, has become mechanized, but so it is, for many of the operations formerly done by hand are now performed by machines so much more quickly and with a quite wonderful degree of uniformity. It therefore happens that a large number of recruits to the workshops have to operate machine tools. To the uninitiated these often appear formidable monsters with so much to learn about the functions of parts with strange names. A very little knowledge, however, is sufficient to tame these monsters, and the necessary skill comes with practice. The writer has seen slim girls operating heavy milling-machines with no indication that a few weeks before they were engaged on much more feminine occupations. *Engineering Workshop Practice*[3] gives a well illustrated account of the common machine-tools and their functions.

Mechanical Engineering[4] breaks new ground. In a foreword it is described as a guide book rather than a text-book. The first half of the book is taken up with something approaching a personal talk on the best methods of acquiring the necessary knowledge and what lines of advancement are open to the budding engineer. To those who contemplate making engineering their life work this book should prove to be stimulating and helpful.

Aero Engines[5] gives an account of the general principles of these engines and their accessories, including the supercharger. It is not a manual on any particular engine, since so many types are now employed, but the book provides sufficient of the general principles involved to give the reader an intelligent grasp of the work necessary to maintain these engines in running order.

Those whose memory is long enough to take them back to the days when electric lighting on a motor-car was a novelty may do well to reflect on the increased use to which electricity has been put since those days to operate an ever growing number of accessories. If this is true of the motor-car, what of the aeroplane ? We have only to glance over the pages of *Electrical and Wireless Equipment of Aircraft*[6] to realize how much is now put upon the shoulders of the electrical maintenance staff at an aerodrome. The book has all the business-like qualities associated with official instruction manuals and the fact that it has now reached a fourth edition is sufficient indication of its merits.

The book is very well illustrated and should prove a valuable work of reference for those engaged in the electrical side of aircraft and a no less valuable source of inspiration and interest to those who contemplate taking up this important work.

It may be considered a pity that the letter *C* is still used in this book to indicate current when dealing with Ohm's Law and subsequent work. When electrical symbols were standardized in 1910, *C* was used for capacity and *I* for current. A small matter perhaps, but it may lead to confusion if the reader refers to other books where the modern system is used.

There are two quite distinct types of student who study the elements of electricity. The boy at a secondary or junior technical school approaches it as just one subject in the curriculum. He may, or may not, make it his life work, but in any case, that is not yet. The other type is the young man who is already engaged in some branch of the electrical industry, who takes a course, usually part-time, as a contribution to his general training. There are numerous books suitable for the first type, many of them excellent, but even the best often fail to make an appeal to the second type of student.

In *Foundations of Technical Electricity*[7] we have a book intended for the second type, and very good it is. The authors have a thorough knowledge of the kind of student for whom they are writing; they know what he wants and what he ought to have. The book can be strongly recommended for the more mature student who wants to "get down to it" without sacrificing either the elements of the subject or its logical sequence.

A Text Book of Electricity and Magnetism[8] hardly falls into either of the two categories we have mentioned, although it is primarily intended as a school-book. The author provides for the needs of candidates taking the Higher School Certificate and University Scholarship examinations. The treatment is very thorough and full use of the calculus is made throughout the book. The reviewer was especially attracted by the section dealing with the cathode-ray oscillograph. This valuable instrument is being more and more used for attacking both war and peace problems, and there can be no doubt that it has a very important future in many departments of industry. A young soldier who, before he joined the army, was a radio-maintenance mechanic, recently came home on leave after taking one of the army courses for electricians. He expressed the view that, if he returned to his old job after the war, he would not be satisfied to test radio-sets by the old pre-war methods but would require a portable cathode-ray oscillograph so that he could do the job properly. This young man may be more of a prophet than he knows.

Those of us who studied what was then called the "theory of flight" a quarter of a century ago cannot help feeling surprise at the large amount of knowledge of the basic principles of aero-dynamics which can be imparted without the use of mathematics. *Flight without Formulae*[9] is a model of what this type of instruction should be. It offers a sound introduction to the subject for those approaching it for the first time. The same author's *Mechanics of Flight*[10] should prove easy going after a reading of the first book. *Mechanics of Flight* forms one of three volumes intended for those engaged on practical aeronautical engineering. The subsequent volumes deal with aeroplane structures and the properties and strength of materials. The book under review is well illustrated both by photographs and line diagrams and is set out in a manner which makes rapid reference quite easy.

No one supposes that the art of flying can be acquired by reading a book; yet, if the would-be pilot makes himself familiar with the nature and functions of the controls and instruments found on aeroplanes of the training type, he will surely feel less confused than would otherwise be the case when he sits for the first time before the real thing. *A Primer of Flying*[11] is intended to give just this type of knowledge to aspirants to the air.

Many thousands of applicants for duty with the Royal Air Force, while having no misgivings about their ability to "do the job" when the time comes, have had very uneasy feelings on the minimum of mathematical knowledge on which the Air Ministry insist before training can commence. Learning the elements of mathematics at school is easy compared with the task of absorbing this same mathematics at a later age, when the mind is full of another objective. The difficulty is certainly lessened if the mathematics can be definitely correlated with the objective in view, and *First Stage Mathematics*[12] certainly does this for the A.T.C. and other aspirants to the R.A.F. Both authors are Squadron Commanders in the A.T.C., and the examples are well chosen and calculated to stimulate interest in those for whom the book has been specifically written.

Aircraft Mathematics[13] has been written with the same objective. A very large number of examples are given, and these cover a wide field and are of a practical character.

The work of those who make, equip, maintain, and operate our aeroplanes will all be in vain if they are not efficiently navigated, and the remaining books dealing with this important subject are therefore of special interest. *Air Navigation*[14] deals with maps and instruments, followed by some really practical examples in dead-reckoning navigation.

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The author almost apologizes for giving a few notes at the end of this little book on ice formation. No apology is necessary, for although the subject may rightly fall under the heading of meteorology—prevention being better than cure, navigation which will avoid ice accretion, the rate of which may be as high as one inch per minute, is certainly very desirable.

Dead-reckoning is a branch of navigation which is based on plane trigonometry, and is therefore applicable only over small areas taken one at a time, where the curvature of the earth is small enough to be neglected. For long-distance flights, during portions of which the surface of the earth may not be visible, navigation must be based on the assumption that the journey is being made over the surface of a sphere, and the route indicated by observation of stars, which may be regarded as being attached to the inner surface of a still larger sphere. *Astro-Navigation*,[15] Parts I and II, gives the essentials of this science with great clarity. The operations of observation are set out step by step, and all the modern labour-saving devices for computing the result are given.

Those who are familiar with the methods of marine navigation will find these books of great interest. Although the objective is the same in each case, there are conditions prevailing in the air which do not obtain at sea, and the methods of overcoming these difficulties are admirable.

We are of necessity a maritime nation, and the seamanship of our race is undoubtedly of a very high order. May a mere landlubber venture to suggest that many maritime navigators whom he has been privileged to meet might find something to learn from our air navigators ?

[1] **Introduction to Engineering : a Preliminary Text-book on the Practice of Mechanical and Aeronautical Engineering.** By R. W. J. PRYER. (2s. 6d. Pitman.)

[2] **Workshop Ways : a Trainee's Introduction to General Workshop Practice.** By A. C. KELSALL and A. E. MORGAN. (1s. 6d. net. Arnold.)

[3] **Engineering Machine Shop Practice.** By B. R. HILTON. (5s. net. Pitman.)

[4] **Mechanical Engineering : the Profession and its Opportunities.** By W. H. ATHERTON. (4s. net. Pitman.)

[5] **Aero Engines : for Pilots and Ground Engineers.** By O. CAUDWELL. (5s. net. Pitman.)

[6] **Electrical and Wireless Equipment of Aircraft : Including the Repair, Overhaul and Testing of Magnetos ("X" Licence).** By S. G. WYBROW. Fourth Edition. (Aeronautical Engineering Series, Ground Engineers.) (5s. net. Pitman.)

[7] **Foundations of Technical Electricity.** By Dr. E. MALLETT and T. B. VINYCOMB. Second Edition. (6s. net. Pitman.)

[8] **A Text-Book of Electricity and Magnetism.** By G. R. NOAKES. (8s. 6d. Macmillan.)

[9] **Flight Without Formulae : How and Why an Aeroplane Flies explained in Simple Language.** By A. C. KERMODE. (6s. net. Pitman.)

[10] **An Introduction to Aeronautical Engineering : for Students engaged in all Branches of Aeronautical Work.** Vol. I : Mechanics of Flight. By A. C. KERMODE. Fourth Edition. (7s. 6d. net. Pitman.)

[11] **A Primer of Flying : an Introductory Course in the Art of Flying.** By G. W. WILLIAMSON. (2s. 6d. net. Pitman.)

[12] **First Stage Mathematics suitable for the R.A.F. and A.T.C.** By Dr. A. F. BUCHAN and R. BORTHWICK. (1s. net. University of London Press.)

[13] **Aircraft Mathematics.** By S. A. WALLING and J. C. HILL. (2s. 9d. Cambridge University Press.)

[14] **Air Navigation : an Introduction to Practical Navigation.** By W. J. D. ALLAN. (3s. 6d. net. Pitman.)

[15] **The Observer's Book on Astro-Navigation.** By F. CHICHESTER. Parts 1 and 2. (2s. 6d. each. Allen & Unwin.)

SCIENCE IN ACTION

By J. A. LAUWERYS, University of London Institute of Education

EVERY one now knows that we depend, more and more, upon scientific technology. As a result, public interest in wonders and mysteries, in incomprehensibilities and paradoxes, in immensities and expanding universes, is fading. Instead, we find a growing realization of the need to understand what science does, what part it plays in life and in industry. This return to a more empirical realism, this desire to understand problems rather than to escape them is a healthy symptom ; perhaps the next generation will be better able than ours to control the powers at its disposal because it understands them more fully. One index of the shift in the focus of public interest is the number of books being published which describe the sciences in action. They are of very special interest to teachers of science who nowadays are getting away from the formal, academic trivialities once so fashionable and are relating their work more closely to the actualities of an industrial society. Chemists have long been well served : books dealing with the role of chemistry in everyday life and in industry have long been available. Prof. Britton's *Chemistry, Life and Civilization*, first published in 1931, is a familiar example. It has now been issued in a cheap edition[1]—cheap only in price : paper, printing, binding, illustrations are all excellent. The content is identical with that of the earlier printing (chemistry of the human body, of clothing, paper, agriculture, fertilizers, metals, alloys, &c.), but a chapter dealing with vitamins, new drugs, synthetic rubber, artificial wool and so on has been added.

One branch of chemistry which has made truly startling progress during the last ten years is chemotherapy, which progress is described in Dr. Sherwood Taylor's *Conquest of Bacteria*.[2] The scope of this book is fairly wide—the author deals with the history of the germ theory, gives a first-rate account of how the body defends itself against infection, and pays attention to the social importance and finance of research. But the crux of his book lies in his account of the discovery of drugs—from 606 to 693, the enemy of streptococcus, the eliminator of pneumonia—which kill parasites and microbes within the human body. He shows how this new science is giving us the equipment necessary for the conquest of the tropics and how it has already made an immense difference to the health of the population in those regions. Dr. Sherwood Taylor's book is, of course, clearly and attractively written and absolutely up to date. Even readers who know no science will find it exciting. But those of us who have been spoiled by the sixpennies will regret its price !

The chemical attack on the enemies of all mankind also figures in Mr. Large's big and rather ambitious *Advance of the Fungi*,[3] in which he reviews the successive epidemics of fungal and other plant diseases which have swept the crops of the modern world—the phylloxera of the vines, the canker of the larch, coffee and wheat rusts, blights, wart diseases, leaf-roll and so on. He is not satisfied merely to describe the biology of all this, nor merely to trace the growth of the science of crop defence. He deals also with the social effects : for instance, with the results of the potato famine in Ireland and its repercussions on English political life, and his parasitology does not exclude the absentee landlord. Mr. Large does not expect his readers to be specialists nor to know any science at all : his book can be enjoyed by all. It is as easy to read as a novel and far more exciting than most. Indeed, his lively, popular, almost journalistic style (which, in big doses, I found a little tiring) is deceptively simple. In fact, he is an extremely careful and accurate writer. I lent the book to a friend, who has for many years specialized in the subject, asking him to pick holes. Grudgingly he returned it, saying he'd read it all and had but one complaint : he thought the reasons for the changing terminology of the fungi had not been made quite clear and that this might occasionally cause confusion.

Biology and chemistry are important, but it is physics which plays the dominant role in the modern world. Yet, oddly enough, there are comparatively few books in which the application of that science are described adequately. Thus Dr. E. G. Richardson's *Physical Science in Art and Industry*[4] fills a real gap. The list of contents will indicate

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its scope: Physics of Locomotion (Vehicles, Ships, Aeroplanes); Communication; Pottery; Culinary Arts; Farming; River Hydrology; Mining; Fine Art and Archaeology; Building Materials; Architecture; Music; Textiles; War. The book is considerably more advanced than the earlier *Physical Science in Modern Life*, but it is not really difficult nor does the author use mathematics. Dr. Richardson's aim was not to write a popular book, but rather what might be described as a simple text-book of applied physics. It was badly needed and teachers of physics will find it almost indispensable.

As its title indicates,[5] Professor A. M. Low's new book deals with the genetic aspect of science—with the way in which discoveries are made. This is not a profound or philosophical work, but it is entirely sound and it is obvious that the author knows the " feel " of the stuff he deals with and that he has the capacity of conveying to others the excitement of research. It is an excellent book to lend to older boys or to non-scientific friends who will be charmed by the clarity and simplicity of the exposition.

One of the best ways of making plain to laymen or to children what science is and does, is to tell them about the lives of those who love it and who have advanced it. When this is well done, it becomes clear that scientific activity is not a cold and inhuman business, but a thrilling and worthwhile pursuit. Samuel Smiles did it admirably for the Victorians and thereby founded a tradition which is still strong and lively, because it was so well attuned to the English temper. Professor Matschoss in *Great Engineers*,[6] a companion to Lenard's *Great Men of Science*, differs from Smiles chiefly in being more international in his outlook —he includes Greeks, Italians, Britons, Americans, and Germans in his collection of some thirty lives and forty-five portraits. And, of course, he includes men who have done their work since Smiles's death—men like Otto, Daimler, Diesel, Parsons, Edison, and Linde. But, like his prototype, he is intensely interested in people, he respects hard work and industry, he believes in the importance of craftsmanship and he likes anecdotes. A good book: it would certainly *not* remain, dusty and unread, on the shelves of the library!

Civilization Builders,[7] by the Head of the Department of English in a New York School, is intended for younger readers, say pre-School Certificate. If School Certificate examiners asked questions which led candidates to read such books, what a good thing that would be! It is divided into six sections, dealing with the development of transportation, of machinery, of photography, of electricity, of applied chemistry, and of medicine. Dr. Houk Law's purpose was to " emphasize the events, the motives, the aspirations, the character qualities, the human-interest values, and the dramatic moments in the lives of persons who were truly great because they gave greatly ". The book consists of short episodic biographies of nearly a hundred people like Watt, Pullman, Montgolfier, Wright, Whitney, Da Vinci, Daguerre, Morse, Goodyear, Perkin, Baekeland, Lister, &c. It is a beautiful publishing job: pleasingly illustrated, excellently printed and bound, easy to hold and to read. It should certainly figure in every school library.

[1] **Chemistry, Life and Civilization: a Popular Account of Modern Advances in Chemistry.** By Prof. H. T. S. Britton. Cheaper Edition, with Supplement. (5s. net. Chapman & Hall.)

[2] **The Conquest of Bacteria: from 606 to 693.** By Dr. Sherwood Taylor. (6s. net. Secker & Warburg.)

[3] **The Advance of the Fungi.** By E. C. Large. (18s. net. Cape.)

[4] **Physical Science in Art and Industry.** By Dr. E. G. Richardson. (15s. net. English Universities Press.)

[5] **How We Find Out.** By Prof. A. M. Low. (5s. net. Nelson.)

[6] **Great Engineers.** By Prof. C. Matschoss. Translated by Dr. H. S. Hatfield. (12s. 6d. net. Bell.)

[7] **Civilization Builders.** By F. H. Law. (6s. net. New York and London: Appleton-Century Co.)

MEDICINE AND NURSING

By Dr. R. H. CROWLEY, lately Senior Medical Officer, Board of Education

IT is hardly necessary to speak in commendation of a book which has reached its sixteenth edition.[1] It is not easy to steer a midway course between a technical Dictionary of Medicine, which would require to be published in several volumes, and a book intended only for supplying information on the domestic treatment of common ailments. This particular dictionary has achieved this aim. It gives the intelligent reader precisely what he wants. He will find information on the structure and normal functioning of the various bodily organs and indications as to the way these are affected by disease. He will find, too, that special attention has been paid to treatment such as a technically unskilled person may be asked and expected to give. Teachers among others will here find the kind of information and help of which they not infrequently find themselves in need. This new edition has been brought up to date in every department of medicine; and the Supplement on the Management and Treatment of Casualties resulting from Air Raids has been especially revised from the experience gained from the attacks on London and other industrial centres last autumn.

This book[2] has proved very popular among nurses, in particular, since its publication first in 1933. It is a less ambitious book and covers less ground than the Dictionary reviewed above, and is more strictly limited to the requirements of nurses in their period of training and subsequently in their profession in hospital, private practice, and public health service. In this new edition, the needs also of all concerned with everyday medicine and nursing problems, including the mother, the teacher, the welfare worker in home, institution, and factory have been kept closely in view. The book has the great advantage of having been written by a member of the nursing profession with wide experience as a teacher and writer on nursing and hygiene topics generally.

This is a well-known little book[3] for which there has been a constant demand since its publication first in 1929. This, the fifth edition, has been revised to bring it up to date in respect of the modern advances in physiology. The main object of the book is to provide the material necessary for the requirements of the Preliminary State Examination for nurses. It will prove of equal value to others requiring an intelligent understanding of simple anatomy and physiology.

[1] **Black's Medical Dictionary.** By Dr. J. D. Comrie, Sixteenth Edition, with Revised Supplement on Treatment of Air-Raid Casualties. (20s. net. Black.)

[2] **Medical and Nursing Dictionary.** By Evelyn Pearce. New Edition. (12s. 6d. net. Faber & Faber.)

[3] **Anatomy and Physiology for Nurses: a Complete Text-book for the Preliminary State Examination.** By Evelyn C. Pearce. Fifth Edition. (5s. net. Faber & Faber.)

NATURE STUDY AND RURAL SCIENCE

By RICHARD PALMER, Lecturer in Education, University of Liverpool

" PHILOSOPHY as well as faith should be shown by its works." Bacon's dictum finds expression increasingly in the methods of the modern biology teacher. Even so recently as ten years ago, the average school biology text-book contained little more than a simplified version of the topics considered suitable for first-year university students, and the needs and interests of the child, and the responsibilities of citizenship, took second place. To-day all that is changing. The frog, that long-suffering animal, is giving place to man as a first animal type, and progressive teachers, examiners, and writers of text-books are busily thinking out the problems of relating biology teaching to human affairs.

In this, as in so many fields of education, the elementary schools are leading the way. This is well illustrated in the books under review. Dr. Mason's book[1] is said to be

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" suitable for pupils in senior, advanced, central, and secondary schools ", but its largest audience is likely to be the first three years of the secondary school. It is therefore the most advanced of a rather elementary batch. In many respects it is admirable. The illustrations are uniformly good, and the individual experiments are most of them well-devised. These excellencies do not compensate for a total failure to bring out the educational values of the subject, or to relate it either to the child's interests or to human affairs. To be precise, reference to Man, or to useful applications of any kind whatever is made on only 48 pages out of 220. The discussion of nitrogen fixation in legumes without the briefest mention of the use of legumes in agriculture is a quite typical example of the pointless ' purity ' of the treatment. And since, as an exposition of pure biology the book has very little obvious ' shape ', the wider significance of what is learnt is hardly likely to go home. Incidentally the reviewer could find no reference of any kind to sexual reproduction, even in animals as remote as Hydra or the earthworm, let alone in Man. Surely we have now passed the stage when a discreet veil was drawn over this aspect of living.

Dr. Michaelis's introduction[2] to the working of the human body is intended for quite young children—roughly for those with a mental age of 11 or 12. It should certainly succeed in catching and holding their interest. They will especially enjoy the clever illustrations, more than eighty of them in all, which decorate the wide margins, and neatly illustrate each point in the text. Very successful use is made of analogies with man-made mechanisms—such as ships and cameras—which are illustrated side by side with their living counterparts. There is a sensible little chapter on first-aid. It is a pity that so excellent a book should be marred by some errors of fact.

Like Dr. Michaelis, Miss Stephenson[3] believes in linking biology teaching with human affairs, though in her book the link is not with medicine but with rural science. Nature-readers intended for junior schools must run into scores if not into hundreds. This series is probably one of the best of the many available. It is written with clearness and accuracy, and is profusely and beautifully illustrated. There are many suggestions for " Things to write and do ", and the Teachers' Book contains much sound and practical advice about the use of the series in schools. The book has one serious shortcoming—the assumption that nature study for juniors must be almost exclusively biological. To introduce simple physical principles at the junior stage requires great skill—and the kind of insight into the child's conception of the world that studies such as Piaget's have given us. But it can be done, and to great advantage. It is a pity that so many skilled teachers of nature study fight shy of the problems involved.

In these three books, human practice is incidental to the study of nature. The exigencies and opportunities of war have combined to give us another type of school-book in which the study of nature is incidental to practice. Mr. Street's little book[4] will be very warmly welcomed by evacuated pupils. Under his expert guidance they will look with new eyes at the varied activity of the countryside. And the wider problems of agriculture are not neglected, even in so simple a book. A really first-class job of exposition—may it have many readers. Dr. Wilkie has tackled a more specialized topic in his booklet on *Pig Keeping*[5] written for the National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs. Here again we have really good exposition, with the needs of the young audience kept well in mind. The practical advice is well adapted to school conditions, and sufficient theory is given for the young farmer to understand what he is about. The two little books in the ' Practical Work Books '[6] series, are also excellent in their way. They show one ' How to Start ' very clearly and concisely. Their contribution to general education would be greatly enhanced if a few more pages were given to the principles which lie behind practice.

And lastly there is Mr. Harper Cory's book on mammals.[7] This is perhaps less a book for pupils than for teachers. The latter will find it a useful source of accurate information on British mammals. Mr. Neaves Parker's illustrations are superb. And at 4s. 6d. it is very good value for money. It should find its way into every school library.

[1] **Practical Biology.** By Dr. J. MASON. (Complete Edition, 4s. In Two Parts, 2s. 3d. each. McDougall's Educational Co.)
[2] **How the Body Works.** By Dr. L. S. MICHAELIS. (2s. Longmans.)
[3] **Nature at Work.** By E. M. STEPHENSON. (Book 1, 1s. 9d. Book 2, 1s. 10d. Book 3, 2s. Black.)
Nature Study and Rural Science: a Four-Year Course for Juniors, being the Teacher's Book to *Nature at Work*. By E. M. STEPHENSON. (3s. Black.)
[4] **Round the Year on the Farm.** By A. G. STREET. (2s. Oxford University Press.)
[5] **Pig Keeping.** By Dr. J. WILKIE. (Young Farmers' Club Booklet No. 4.) (6d. N.F.Y.F.C.)
[6] (*a*) **How to Start Vegetable Gardening.**
(*b*) **How to Start Poultry-Keeping.**
By E. JOHNSON. (Practical Work Books.) (9d. each. Nelson.)
[7] **The Mammals of the British Isles.** By H. CORY. (4s. 6d. net. Nelson.)

Art and Handicraft

1. **Ancient England: a Review of Monuments and Remains in Public Care and Ownership**
By E. VALE. (10s. 6d. net. Batsford.)
2. **English Church Craftsmanship: an Introduction to the Work of the Mediaeval Period and some Account of Later Developments.**
By F. H. CROSSLEY. (8s. 6d. net. Batsford.)

Here are two Batsford books which maintain the high standard set by their predecessors. *Ancient England* is an interesting account of our ancient monuments and buildings which are in public care or ownership. The volume is illustrated by over 120 photographs and drawings, with two coloured plates. It is divided into seven sections—Prehistoric, Primitive, Roman, Pre-Norman, Castles, Monuments of Religion, Domestic. As the author says in a postscript, " if our wealth of ancient monuments is becoming less, it is at the same time becoming more precious ", and this interesting summary is particularly welcome at the present time.

The publishers claim that *English Church Craftsmanship* is the first volume in which an attempt is made to take in the whole range of craftsmanship in the churches of England in all its various manifestations. It deals with stonework and carving, figure-work and sculpture, tomb-craft, wood-work, stained glass, tiles, metal-work, and painting, while there are chapters on the representation of life and nature, and of the grotesque, and the use of heraldry. In an interesting epilogue the author deals with Post-Reformation work to which too little attention has been paid. We could not ask for a better introduction to the wealth of craftsmanship which exists in our English churches, some of which has been irreparably lost through the destructive frenzy of the modern Hun. The book is illustrated by three coloured plates and over 220 reproductions from photographs.

Biography

1. **Diary of a Public Schoolmaster**
2. **Diary of a Citizen**
By S. P. B. MAIS. (3s. 6d. net each. The Lutterworth Press.)

Mr. Mais's extraordinary activities as broadcaster and novelist, as lecturer on books, travel, and the countryside, and as free-lance journalist, are well known to a wide public. It is not so well known that he spent eleven years as a schoolmaster at Rossall, Sherborne, and Tonbridge, and that he left the teaching profession to devote himself entirely to authorship. When the war broke out he decided

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to ' do his bit ' by going back to teaching, and for a few months he taught in an evacuated school. In the *Diary of a Public Schoolmaster* he gives a characteristically breezy discussion of public-school education then and now. What he says about compulsory football, unwieldy classes, ugly class-rooms, the swamping of handwork by headwork, the house system, and many other matters, makes lively reading and sound sense. He may be charged with exaggeration, but his criticism can, we imagine, do nothing but good.

In the *Diary of a Citizen* he gives passages from a diary written during the months when he broadcasted on " The Kitchen Front ". Here we learn how those talks were prepared, came to be given, and were received. One extract must suffice. " Hitler has made gardeners of us all, cooks of us all, thrifty, sober, God-fearing, upright citizens of us all. Talk about the age of miracles ! " An exaggeration again, no doubt, but one which conveys an essential truth.

Education

Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction

By H. C. McKown and A. B. Roberts. (McGraw-Hill Series in Education). (21s. McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.)

This latest addition to the McGraw-Hill educational series provides a comprehensive survey, from the American point of view, of educational appeals to eye and ear, including what we call mechanical aids to instruction. From objects and models we pass to maps and graphs and charts, then to flat pictures including the stereograph, then to projected still pictures, then to motion-pictures, then to school trips (or, as we say, school journeys), then to school broadcasting, and lastly to the phonograph or gramophone. Every section of the book is well illustrated, and brings out the strong and weak points of each device. It seems clear that, as might have been expected, American schools are ahead of ours in the use of expensive modern apparatus. On the other hand the curious fact emerges that the great educational possibilities of the school journey were realized much earlier in Europe than in American schools. American education, say the authors, has always been " school-house bound ", devoting itself to a highly organized scheme of work carried on within the seclusion of the school walls. The present volume provides evidence that the American school has got clean beyond these restrictions, and takes its place as a genuine social institution. The book is a valuable contribution to pedagogical literature.

Redeeming the Time : a Survey of the Junior Instruction Centre Movement

By O. E. Evans. (2s. 6d. net. The University Press of Liverpool.)

Junior Instruction Centres are in many respects, as Mr. Evans shows, a disappointing feature of our educational system. Both teachers and administrators have, however, done their best to make them work satisfactorily during the twenty-one years of their existence. Although many of the centres have now been closed, post-war conditions may make it necessary to reopen them, and it is therefore relevant to consider what should be done to meet possible future demands.

The prevention of demoralization is a problem which demands a real understanding of the juvenile and of his position in our social system. The type concerned is socially, educationally, and morally below the average. Long periods of unemployment have tended to embitter a lad and to make him feel that there is no room for him in our social or industrial system. He must be given a chance to cultivate a sense of self-respect and pride. Temperaments and aptitudes differ so much that individual work by teachers with outstanding qualifications is called for. But the conditions do not attract the best men, and the position of the ' instructors ', who are liable to be dismissed at short notice, is even more precarious.

The pamphlet, besides discussing the psychological, medical, and social aspects of the subject, deals with the curriculum and with such matters as delinquency and the finding of employment. The suggestions made for improvement include the introduction of a graded scale of maintenance allowances, compulsory attendance for six hours on each of five days, with provision of mid-day meals, and the opening of each centre as a voluntary club-institute in the evenings. The pamphlet is a careful and valuable piece of work.

English

Noah: the Story of Another Ark

By Katharine Tozer. (5s. net. Murray.)

This is the story of a little black boy who lived by a great American river, and, with the Bible story in his mind, built another ark. The story is full of incident, is brightly written, and the illustrations are excellent. Children will greatly enjoy it.

Sesame Books

1. The Flower-Show Match and Other Pieces. By S. Sassoon. 2. Harvest by Lamplight. By A. G. Street. 3. Points of View. By T. S. Eliot. 4. The Insurance Salesman and Other Stories. By W. Saroyan. 5. The Picnic and other stories. By W. de la Mare. 6. As the Sun Shines. By M. Williamson. (3s. 6d. net each.) 7. Selected Poems. By R. Bridges. (2s. 6d. net.) (Faber & Faber.)

This series is sure of a warm welcome from an important and discriminating section of the reading public. The volumes are pleasantly produced, the price is most reasonable, and the selectors have done their work admirably.

(*Continued on page 464*)

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In the list of books published or in preparation there is not one which students of modern literature, or, indeed, any lover of literature, will not be glad to possess. The publishers are to be congratulated on producing a series so attractive and so badly needed. The volumes in preparation are: *Some Poems*, by W. H. Auden; *Sons of the Mistral*, by Roy Campbell; *Common Joys and Other Poems*, by W. H. Davies; *The Waste Land and Other Poems*, by T. S. Eliot; *No More Ghosts*, by Robert Graves; *The Ship of Death and Other Poems*, by D. H. Lawrence; *Selected Poems*, by L. MacNeice; *The Silent Pool and Other Poems*, by H. Monro; *A Selection of Poems*, by Ezra Pound; *Thirty-Five Poems*, by H. Read; *Poems Newly Selected*, by S. Sassoon; *Poems New and Old*, by Edith Sitwell; *Selected Poems*, by S. Spender; *The Trumpet and Other Poems*, by E. Thomas.

History

From Serf to Citizen

By W. C. J. WARD. Book 3. (3s. Blackie.)

Labour, Mart and Money: an Economic and Industrial History of England

By H. W. SAUNDERS. (2s. 8d. Johnston.)

In recent years writers and teachers have wisely decided that the economic and social facts of history must be treated at least as fully as the political and dynastic, and that the pupils must be freed from the bondage of unnecessary dates. The peril that lurks here is that social history will be presented as a series of pictures amid which the relations of time and of cause and effect are blurred. Mr. Ward deals with the time-problem by devoting a chapter to each topic—*e.g.* agriculture, education, transport, medicine—and describing the development of each from the Middle Ages to the present day. History cannot survive this dismemberment; each chapter is interesting and, in the main, accurate, but the real causes of change remain obscure. Mr. Saunders gives a chronological account of the same period but he also is inclined to become absorbed in the details of a particular picture. Both writers appear more at home in mediaeval than in modern times—Mr. Saunders' fondness for feudalism leads him to make the surprising statement that " there was no real poverty ". It is doubtful whether books of this size can profitably cover so much ground, and whether the descriptions of modern and mediaeval economic conditions do not require widely different types of technique.

There is, however, no doubt that both authors have succeeded in presenting much valuable material in an attractive form. The books should be used by a teacher with a good historical sense, capable of remedying the defect described above; on this condition they will be valuable to senior schools and the junior forms of secondary schools. Both are well illustrated and attractive in general appearance.

A Hundred Years of the British Empire

By Prof. A. P. NEWTON. (The Hundred Years Series.) (15s. net. Duckworth.)

No one can write with greater authority on the British Empire than Prof. Newton, who has devoted the past thirty years to the study of its archives and the teaching of its history. In the present volume he traces the evolution of the Empire during the century 1840–1940. So far as possible he concentrates on general movements, *e.g.* the abolition of slavery, the development of self-government, the tendency to federation. Nevertheless, four of his twenty-five chapters are assigned to India, and two to South Africa. The volume is admirably arranged and is full of valuable information lucidly stated.

Kings and Commoners: Studies in British Idealism

By G. F. TIMPSON. Services' Edition. (2s. 6d. net. Burrow.)

This is a cheap ' Services' Edition ' of a book which has already won considerable popularity. Its title was chosen by the author to express that growing unity between Throne and people which has been evident during the last four reigns. It begins with an account of the last audience of King George V and a sketch of King Edward VIII as Prince of Wales. It goes on to give a series of pictures of the men and women who have helped to shape the life of the nation in education, industry, sport, war, and literature, and of some ' ordinary fellows '. An interlude contains *The School in the West*—a Song of Wycliffe—and *The Englishman, Lover of Flowers*, and the volume ends with a tribute to the three nations, Scotland, Wales, and England. There are interesting illustrations, including some portraits.

Mathematics

Functions of a Complex Variable, with Applications

By E. G. PHILLIPS. (University Mathematical Texts.) (4s. 6d. net. Oliver & Boyd.)

This text-book covers so much of Complex Variable Theory as is usually required for a university honours course. The range covered is sufficiently indicated by the headings of its five sections, which are Functions of a Complex Variable, Conformal Representation, Some Special Transformations, The Complex Integral Calculus, The Calculus of Residues.

In spite of the limited space at his disposal the author provides introductions to the main branches of the subject which not only form a sound foundations for further study, but also will be of real service to students of branches of Applied Mathematics, such as Hydrodynamics and Electricity, for whom some knowledge of Complex Theory is indispensable.

Modern Languages

Nouveau Dictionnaire Illustré Simon

(12s. 6d. net. University of London Press.)

This dictionary will be warmly welcomed by all teachers and students of French. It is admirably produced, is thoroughly up to date, and is enriched by a number of illustrations, some in colour. The definitions in the language section are illustrated by examples which make their meaning clear. There is a historical and geographical section, with a number of maps, some of which are coloured. (Why is Liége omitted from the towns mentioned ?) There is also a short grammatical section. The work justifies the claim of the editor that it gives readers in a practical and concise form indispensable information about the language, science, philosophy, literature, art, history, and geography of France.

Religious Knowledge

The Genesis Mosaic

By CULLEN YOUNG. (1s. 6d. net. Religious Education Press.)

Most teachers know that the stories in the first few chapters of Genesis have cruder parallels in the Babylonian legends of creation, flood, and so forth—that in fact the Hebrews in these tales asserted their faith in a personal and living God over against the nature-myths current in their pagan environment. Mr. Cullen Young shows that many of the primitive peoples of Africa among whom he has worked have traditional stories which embody ideas akin to the Hebrew beliefs, and that we may here find evidence of the way in which God has made Himself known ' by divers portions and in divers manners ' to mankind in its prehistoric simplicity: Mr. Young further illumines from the same source some of the statements in these chapters which present real difficulty to the teacher either in telling the stories to children or in answering their questions—*e.g.* longevity of the Patriarchs. He rearranges the text in such a way as to bring out the true sequence of the narrative and therefore the purpose of the compiler. This is a little book

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of great intrinsic interest which at the same time is sound and useful as an aid in teaching.

The Christian Religion : a Description of the Heritage and Hopes of Christian People

By R. R. WILLIAMS. (3s. net. Student Christian Movement Press.)

In a fresh and arresting way, Mr. Williams outlines the historic and contemporary significance of our Christian heritage—worship, belief, moral obligation, Scriptures—and the task of handing this on to all the peoples of the world which our possession of such a treasure carries with it. He has very much in mind the young people who cannot see why such relics of a once potent but now moribund Christianity should persist or be considered in any way important. Setting forth the actual facts in world-perspective he creates upon any reader who has normal powers of imagination a very vivid impression of the living energy as well as the historic influence of the Christian religion, and at the same time dispels the notion that one must needs be an obscurantist to retain Christian loyalties. A very stimulating and informing book for the school library.

Studies and Documents

Edited by Dr. KIRSOPP LAKE and Dr. SILVA LAKE.
XI : Family 13 (The Ferrar Group). The Text according to Mark, with a Collation of Codex 28 of the Gospels. (15s. net.) (London : Christophers ; Philadelphia : University of Pennsylvania Press.)
XII : The Homily on the Passion, by MELITO, Bishop of Sardis, and some Fragments of the Apocryphal Ezekiel. Edited by CAMPBELL BONNER. (20s. net.)

XI is a reconstruction of the text of Mark which probably lay behind a group of Twelfth Century S. Italian MSS., and is, in the opinion of the editors, descended from an original earlier than the ' Caesarean ' text of Origen, Palestinian in provenance. This volume is an example of the immense labour devoted by scholars to ascertaining as accurately as possible the precise Greek wording of the Gospel to which primarily we owe our knowledge of the main facts in the life of Jesus. A particular point of interest is that this group of MSS. supports the reading, in Mark vi. 3, " Is not this the carpenter's son ? " as against " Is not this the carpenter ? "

The latest volume of *Studies and Documents*, edited by Drs. Kirsopp and Silva Lake, is, like the others, meant primarily for the advanced specialist in theological and kindred studies. It contains an erudite critical introduction, the Greek text of the Homily and Fragment, with notes, and translations in full. But many who cannot follow Dr. Bonner into the more recondite parts of his discussion will find much to interest them in this specimen of Christian preaching in the reign of Marcus Aurelius, to whom Melito addressed his *Apology* for the Christians.

THE NOVEMBER NUMBER OF The Journal of Education WILL BE A Special American Number

It will include :

Articles by **R. Birley,** Headmaster of Charterhouse, and **Professor Hale Bellot,** of London University, on books on American history as well as on novels, biographies, &c., which throw light upon the American cultural background.

IN GRATEFUL RETROSPECT. By Sir Michael Sadler, K.C.S.I., C.B.

AN EDUCATED DEMOCRACY. By G. T. Hankin.

THE TEACHING OF AMERICAN HISTORY IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS. By Dr. Weitzman, of the University of London Institute of Education.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH HISTORY IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS. By Professor Erling Hunt.

THE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN THE PROMOTION OF BRITISH-AMERICAN UNDERSTANDING. By Cecil Stott, of Aldenham School.

AMERICAN HISTORY IN OUR SCHOOLS. By F. S. Marvin.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF AMERICA. By J. H. Stembridge.

AMERICA FACES THE WAR. By Professor F. A. Cavenagh, King's College, London.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN THE U.S.A. By J. A. Lauwerys, University of London Institute of Education.

EVACUATION REVELATION

"IF we ever thought that all the children of this country were receiving a proper grounding in the Christian religion, the discoveries made at their evacuation must have dispelled any idea of that sort. . . . The most important thing of all is that every single teacher who is convinced about the Christian faith should be given the very best opportunities of teaching it ; and that only those who really believe it should be required to teach it".

That is a significant quotation from a broadcast by the Rev. Leslie D. Weatherhead, Minister of the City Temple. That talk was printed in *The Listener*. Every week such important talks are printed in *The Listener*, where they may be read at leisure and kept for convenient reference.

The Listener

3d EVERY THURSDAY

THE EARS OF THE BUSY TEACHER

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Other New and Forthcoming Educational Publications

ART

The Teaching of Art in Schools : an Illustrated Description of Children's Imaginative Painting and its Effect on Craft. By EVELYN GIBBS. Third Edition, Revised and Reset. (8s. 6d. net. Williams & Norgate.)

This third edition has been revised throughout, and contains an additional chapter on infant and junior work, and on special difficulties and developments which Miss Gibbs has encountered in her more recent experiences.

BIOGRAPHY

A Surgeon Looks Back. By the late H. J. PATERSON, C.B.E., M.C., M.D., F.R.G.S. (10s. 6d. net. The Epworth Press.)

This book of memories, written from a wealth of knowledge, wisdom and experience, is being published in tribute to one whose proud profession and ministry was to save life and master pain. For many years Mr. Paterson was associated with the National Temperance Hospital in London.

EDUCATION

Education To-day. By JOHN DEWEY. (5s. net. Allen & Unwin.)

The full scope of the practical values of John Dewey's educational theory is presented, for the first time within the covers of a single book, in lucid and penetrating style.

Learning and Teaching in the Junior School. By NANCY CATTY. (5s. net. Methuen.)

A new book by the author of the well-known text-books *Theory and Practice of Education* and *A First Book on Teaching*.

ENGLISH

Shorter Narrative Poems. Edited by F. B. PINION. (2s. 6d. Arnold.)

This selection is intended for middle forms in secondary schools.

Winter Term. By J. HARRIMAN. (8s. 6d. net. Hale.)

A novel of life in a preparatory school for boys.

Handsome Johnnie. By FRANÇES LOBB. (7s. 6d. net. Faber & Faber.)

A very unusual novel which has all the compelling power of absolute sincerity.

Real Life Stories : Men and their Work. By H. CASEY. (3s. Nelson.)

An Outline History of the English Language. By Dr. F. T. WOOD. (3s. 6d. Macmillan.)

An introduction to the history of the English language for those who have little or no previous knowledge of the subject. It seeks to treat all the more important aspects of the subject —vocabulary, grammar, syntax, pronunciation, sound-change, etymology, &c., in as simple, clear and methodical a way as possible.

Pope's Rape of the Lock. Edited by G. TILLOTSON. (2s. Methuen.)

An edition for schools, with full introduction and notes by one of the Editors of the Twickenham Edition of Pope's poems, and containing both versions of the *Rape of the Lock*.

English Scholarship Tests. By Dr. S. J. CURTIS. (Approx. 6d. Leeds : Arnold.)

John and Joan Story Cards. By G. H. HOLROYD. 3 pkts. of 3 cards in each, for infants. (Approx. 1d. pkt. Leeds : Arnold.)

Teaching of English Series. 1. Othello. Edited by NORA RATCLIFF. 2. Haunters of the Silences. By Sir C. G. D. ROBERTS. (1s. 6d. each. Nelson.)

Literature of Yesterday and To-day. 1. The Mill on the Floss. By GEORGE ELIOT. 2. Great Expectations. By CHARLES DICKENS. 3. The History of Henry Esmond. By W. M. THACKERAY. 4. Asgard and the Norse Heroes. By KATHERINE F. BOULT. 5. Garram the Hunter : a Boy of the Hill Tribes. By H. BEST. 6. An Anthology of English Prose : from Bede to R. L. Stevenson. Arranged by S. L. EDWARDS. 7. The Defendant. By G. K. CHESTERTON. 8. Granny's Wonderful Chair. By FRANCES BROWNE. 9. The Coral Island. By R. M. BALLANTYNE. 10. Jane Eyre. By CHARLOTTE BRONTË. 10. Heidi. By JOHANNA SPYRI. 11. Far Away and Long Ago. By W. H. HUDSON. 12. The Watchers. By A. E. W. MASON. 13. Sense and Sensibility. By JANE AUSTEN. 14. Chippinge. By STANLEY WEYMAN. 15. Barnaby Rudge. By CHARLES DICKENS. 16. The Western Avernus. By MORLEY ROBERTS. 17. Romola. By GEORGE ELIOT. 18, The Lances of Lynwood. By CHARLOTTE M. YONGE. 19. Barchester Towers. By ANTHONY TROLLOPE. 20. Ballet Shoes : a Story of Three Children of the Stage. By NOEL STREATFEILD. 21. Shirley. By CHARLOTTE BRONTË. 22. Tales from Shakespeare. By CHARLES and MARY LAMB. 23. Vanity Fair. By W. M. THACKERAY. 24. The Golden Treasury of Songs and Lyrics. Compiled by F. T. PALGRAVE. With a Supplementary Book of more Modern Poetry. 24. Coco the Clown. By Himself, NICOLAI POLIAKOFF. 25. Runnymede and Lincoln Fair. By J. G. EDGAR. (1s. 8d. each. Dent.)

GEOGRAPHY

Geography and World Power. By J. FAIRGRIEVE. 8th and Revised Edition. (7s. 6d. net. University of London Press.)

HISTORY

A Short History of Modern Greece, 1821-1940. By Prof. E. S. FORSTER. (12s. 6d. net. Methuen.)

Belgium : the Official Account of what happened, 1939-1940. (5s. net. Published for the Belgian Ministry of Foreign Affairs by Evans.)

MATHEMATICS

Practical Mathematics for the A.T.C. By T. H. WARD-HILL. (Probably 2s. 6d. Harrap.)

A comprehensive course covering the mathematics syllabus of the A.T.C. The exercises throughout are of the type which are likely to appeal to Air Cadets and prove particularly useful to them in connexion with their work.

Practical Mathematics : being the Essentials of Arithmetics, Algebra, Geometry and Trigonometry. By Prof. C. I. PALMER and Prof. S. F. BIBB. Part I : Arithmetic with Applications. Part II : Algebra with Applications. 4th Edition. (8s. 6d. each part. McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.)

Intermediate Algebra. By N. MCARTHUR and A. KEITH. (8s. 6d. Methuen.)

A new and comprehensive text-book for first year university students.

Scholarship Arithmetic Tests. By Dr. S. J. CURTIS. (Approx. 6d. Leeds : Arnold.)

MISCELLANY

Practical Work Books. 1. The United States. 2. Your Health and Mine. 3. More Sums Without Words (simple introduction to geometry.) (9d. each. Nelson.)

MUSIC

National Youth Song Book. By Dr. D. MACMAHON. (8s. 6d. Words Edn., 1s. Nelson.)

A selection of popular community songs, including some from grand opera, hymns and carols, rounds and canons : Youth Movement type.

Opera Tunes to Remember. By Mrs. F. M. CLARK. (Nelson.)

The stories of over a dozen operas told briefly, with musical excerpts and gramophone record lists.

Desk Rhythm Reader. (No. 1, 8d. No. 2, 9d. Leeds : Arnold.)

A cardboard apparatus whereby the child can make his own sight-singing tests.

Playing with Music. By Dr. C. HOOPER. Parts 1 and 2. (1s. each. Leeds : Arnold.)

A music course for infants in two books and a Teacher's Book. An entirely new approach to the teaching of music through pictures.

RELIGIOUS KNOWLEDGE

1. Christian Leadership in School and College. By the Rev. Dr. A. W. HARRISON.

2. Religion in Secondary Schools. By E. W. HEATON. (4d. net each. Epworth Press.)

Two additions to the Pilot Books.

SCIENCE

An Introduction to Organic Chemistry. By Dr. J. W. BAKER. (3s. Dent.)

War-Time Health and Democracy. By Dr. H. CLEGG. (Liberty Handbooks No. 5.) (1s. net. Dent.)

Goat Keeping. (Young Farmers' Club Booklet, No. 8.) (6d. N.F.Y.F.C.)

To be a Farmer. By J. GUNSTON. (7s. 6d. net. Methuen.)

A highly qualified, widely experienced and successful farmer, outlines the qualities required in a farmer, the possibilities of agriculture, and the rules of success. He gives expert advice on training, scholarships, the purchasing of farms, costs and conditions, economic handling of crops and stock, home and overseas posts.

Physical Chemistry for Colleges : a Course of Instruction based upon the Fundamental Laws of Chemistry. By Prof. E. B. MILLARD. (International Chemical Series.) (26s. McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.)

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SCHOLARSHIPS MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES, FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

WESTFIELD COLLEGE
(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

Chairman of Council:
Rt. Hon. Viscount CALDECOTE, C.B.E.

Principal:
Mrs. J. L. STOCKS, B.Sc. (Econ.)

RESIDENTIAL College for 150 women which prepares for the Degrees of the University of London. Non-resident Students are also admitted. At the Scholarship Examination to be held in February, 1941, SCHOLARSHIPS from £100 to £30 will be awarded for CLASSICS, GERMAN, FRENCH, ENGLISH, HISTORY, BOTANY and MATHEMATICS.

Fees.—Residence, £90 a year. Tuition from 38 guineas a year.

For further particulars apply to:

The Registrar,
WESTFIELD COLLEGE,
(University of London)
at ST. PETER'S HALL, OXFORD

ALDENHAM SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys under 14 on May 1, on the results of an examination toward the end of May:

(*a*) An ALFRED SMITH SCHOLARSHIP of £80 a year.

(*b*) Three JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS, of £60 to £40 a year.

(*c*) Two or more EXHIBITIONS of about £30 a year.

INTERNAL SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys already in the School:

(*a*) Two SENIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 a year, open to boys not less than 15 and not more than 17 on May 1.

(*b*) Two JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 to £30 a year, open to all boys in the School.

LEAVING EXHIBITIONS. About three each year, from £80 downward, tenable for three years or more at the Universities.

The School Scholarships are tenable for the duration of the holder's school career.

The School Fees are £115 a year, with a Consolidated Fee of £5 a term to cover all necessary extras.

Further particulars may be had from the HEADMASTER, ALDENHAM SCHOOL, ELSTREE, HERTS.

BERKHAMSTED SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination will be held in December, 1941, for two Entrance Scholarships of the value of £60, and Exhibitions of less amount.

Candidates must be under the age of 14 on December 1 immediately before the examination. The age of candidates will be taken into consideration in the examination.

Entries should be received by November 17. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

BRIGHTON COLLEGE

AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

A number of Gill Memorial Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered each June to sons of Officers or Ex-Officers in H.M. Army. The highest of these awards will amount to half the total fees.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in June, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER, Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

HAILEYBURY COLLEGE,
HERTFORD, Herts.

EIGHT Scholarships from £100 to £30 per annum. Six or more Exhibitions, £15 or £10, open only to sons of clergymen of the Church of England, tenable for five years. Age limit under 14 on December 31, 1941. Examination on October 28, 29 and 30. School fees £150; sons of clergymen of the Church of England £109. Particulars from the BURSAR. Last day for applications October 22.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY
Carlyon Bay, South Cornwall

THREE Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

TWELVE to Fourteen King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

ONE Milner Memorial Scholarship value £100 per annum for five years, will be offered in June. The Milner Scholarship is open to sons of Colonial Civil Servants and others.

TWO Music Scholarships, value £50 per annum.

For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

(*a*) Six SCHOLARSHIPS (at least), Classical and Modern, varying from £100 to £50 per annum, according to merit and needs.

(*b*) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

THE LEYS SCHOOL, CAMBRIDGE

Temporarily removed to the
ATHOLL PALACE HOTEL, PITLOCHRY, PERTHSHIRE

THREE or four Open Foundation Scholarships of £100 a year, and six other Scholarships and Exhibitions of between £25 and £75 a year will be awarded in June, 1942, if suitable candidates of sufficient merit present themselves. Candidates must be under 14 on January 1, 1942. A large choice of subjects in the Final Examination is available, including Science, German, and Music. Scholarships and Exhibitions may in certain cases be increased by such an amount as the circumstances of the Scholar may require. Full particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER.

The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS M.A. (Cantab.).

MALVERN COLLEGE

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held early in March, 1942. Up to five Scholarships of £100 and three or more of £50. A number of Exhibitions and Bursarships also will be offered to boys of all-round ability.

Candidates may take the Examination at their Preparatory Schools or at Malvern.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEADMASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in September.

OUNDLE SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June.

For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

Further Scholarship Announcements overleaf

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SCHOLARSHIPS—*continued*

RADLEY COLLEGE

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions varying in value from £120–£40 will be offered for competition in March, 1942. Candidates must be under 14 on March 1, 1942. The Examination will be held in two parts: (*a*) Elementary Papers at the Candidate's Preparatory School on March 9; (*b*) more Advanced Papers for selected candidates at Radley on March 17 and 18. Last day on which entries can be received March 2. Apply for particulars to THE WARDEN, Radley College, Abingdon. Berks.

ROEDEAN SCHOOL, KESWICK

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions will be awarded on the result of an examination to be held in May, 1942, for girls under 14. The value of each award will vary from £30 to £150 a year, according to the financial circumstances of the candidate.

Particulars and forms of application from the Headmistress's Secretary. Last date of entry, March 31st.

SEDBERGH SCHOOL

THE Examination for Ten Entrance Scholarships and Exhibitions, of the annual value of £120 to £40, will be held in May or June. Candidates must be under 14 years of age on January 1.

For further information apply to the HEADMASTER, Sedbergh School, Yorkshire.

WORKSOP COLLEGE, NOTTS.

AN Examination is held in May or June. Generally two Scholarships are offered of £60 each, two of £40, and two of £30. Candidates must be under 14 years of age. Full particulars and entry forms can be obtained from the HEADMASTER, Worksop College, Notts.

WREKIN COLLEGE,

WELLINGTON, SHROPSHIRE

SCHOLARSHIPS AND EXHIBITIONS

AN Examination is held annually, usually in June, when six Entrance Scholarships are offered for competition, value from 40 to 100 guineas, also six Exhibitions, value 30 guineas.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, WALTER M. GORDON, M.A., Wrekin College.

King's College of Household and Social Science

(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

Warden: Miss H. REYNARD, M.A.

Temporary Address:
c/o UNIVERSITY COLLEGE,
LEICESTER

DEGREE Course in Household and Social Science; Sister Tutors' Course; Courses in Institutional and Household Management.

For further information apply to the SECRETARY, King's College of Household and Social Science, at the above address.

THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

A brief list of Forthcoming Articles

THE CHALLENGE OF DEMOCRACY, by H. BELL, Rector, Dollar Academy.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AFTER THE WAR, by P. B. BALLARD.

MAKE EDUCATION DEMOCRATIC: A PROGRAMME IN OUTLINE, by S. B. LUCAS.

THE MODERN UNIVERSITIES, by Professor P. MANSELL JONES, University College, Bangor.

THE KING'S ENGLISH, by TAYLOR DYSON, Headmaster of Almondbury Grammar School, Huddersfield.

EVACUATION AND DIALECT, by F. E. HANSFORD.

IS HUMANE EDUCATION POSSIBLE? by Brother GEORGE EVERY, S.S.M.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

Articles by the BISHOP OF PETERBOROUGH, S. REED BRETT, Dr. BASIL YEAXLEE, and T. RAYMONT.

See *The Journal of Education*, March 1941.

Articles published in the September Number:

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION AND THE TEACHER, by the Rev. A. R. WALLACE, Headmaster of Sherborne School.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION, by the Rev. A. O. STANDEN, Vicar of Maidstone.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The Journal of Education for January and May 1941 contain two authoritative articles on this subject, one by M. L. JACKS, Director of the Department of Education, University of Oxford, and the other by J. H. SIMPSON, The College of St. Mark and St. John.

The Editor hopes to publish in early numbers of *The Journal* further contributions on this topic, including articles by T. W. SUSSAMS, Dr. H. LAMBRIDIS and Miss CATHERINE FLETCHER.

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

The War and the Teaching of History.

WE are awakening to the neglect of American history in our schools and universities, and, according to Mr. G. B. Henderson in the June issue of *History*, we are beginning to lose our shyness of contemporary history. An exhaustive study—to take only one example—of the writings of contemporary observers of the Crimean War, in *The Edinburgh*, *The Quarterly*, *The Contemporary*, *The Fortnightly*, and *Blackwoods*, has amazed him, by their accuracy and their balanced judgments. Delusions, he found, tended to grow later. So he puts in a strong plea for the treatment of contemporary history by the best writers here and now. He is pleased that Prof. Trevelyan added to the last edition of his *British History in the Nineteenth Century* a section bringing the narrative down to the end of the last war, although the professor yielded only a reluctant consent "on grounds of educational utility". Evidently he would have been still better pleased if the narrative had been brought right down to 1937, the date of the new edition. Mr. MacPhail, in *The Scottish Educational Journal*, calls us to account for our neglect of the broad features of European history, to the extent that educated people were at best only dimly aware of the existence of Czecho-Slovakia.

Science—

GEORGE GISSING, who died in 1903, eleven years before the outbreak of the last war, was sceptical as to the advances of science being an unmixed blessing to the world. "I hate and fear science", he wrote, "because of my conviction that, for long to come, if not for ever, it will be the remorseless enemy of mankind. I see it destroying all simplicity and gentleness of life, all the beauty of the world; I see it restoring barbarism under a mask of civilization; I see it darkening men's minds and hardening their hearts; I see it bringing a time of vast conflicts, which will pale into insignificance 'the thousand wars of old'; and, as likely as not, will whelm all the laborious advances of mankind in blood-drenched chaos. To rail against it is as idle as to quarrel with any other force of nature. For myself, I can hold apart, and see as little as possible of the thing I deem accursed. But I think of some who are dear to me, whose life will be lived in the hard and fierce new age."

—And World Order.

IT is no sufficient answer to this indictment to plead that the scientist is responsible only for his own discoveries and inventions, and is not concerned with the use to which they are put. This was not the view taken by the scientists who attended the recent International Conference on Science and World Order. It is no small matter that it should have been possible to hold such a conference in London in the midst of war, and that statesmen like Mr. Eden, Mr. Winant, Dr. Beneš, M. Maisky, and Dr. Wellington Koo should have shared in its deliberations. The conclusions which were reached are of world-wide importance. At the end of the Conference the President of the British Association, Sir Richard Gregory, introduced a Charter of the Commonwealth of Science. It is affirmed that "fresh discoveries open up undreamed-of potentialities for good or for evil, but that their proper use demands correspondingly high ethical standards". In future, scientists are to share with statesmen responsibility for the application of scientific knowledge to world needs. They are to be partners in the fight against the evils from which the world is suffering—poverty, disease, and war. Science is to be no longer the instrument of ambitious and self-seeking men, nor of nationalist governments, but of world co-operation.

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IN our last number we quoted Dr. Beneš' words on the necessity of providing for defeated Germany "a special education which shall bring back new generations of Germans to European civilization and culture". It will be, as we said, a colossal task to attempt to change the outlook of a whole people; but should we not bear in mind that we have now in our midst as prisoners of war a small but important section of German youth? These consist mainly of men from the *Luftwaffe* and the U-boats, all of whom were chosen for this task because of their outstanding qualities of body and of mind. They are too young to have learned anything but the Nazi doctrines of hatred and murder. With them we could make a start. Such an enterprise will necessitate detailed planning by the authorities concerned, but one method which might be adopted is that of providing suitable literature and lectures. There should be no attempt at compulsion, but strictly factual accounts should be presented of the events which have brought Germany into her present position. For the first time, doubts may spring up in the minds of these prisoners whether after all there are not standards of philosophy, of law, and of conduct higher than those of the Nazis. It is perhaps not too optimistic to hope that, when the time comes, some of them may return to their country with ideas different from those with which they left it, both able and willing to give their help to those charged with the responsibility of reconstructing their country and of re-educating their youth.

Re-education of Germans.

AS Sir William Harcourt once remarked, "We are all socialists nowadays". If the word 'socialist' be held to mean a tendency rather than a label, the epigram hardly falls short of the literal truth. Such must have been the reflections of many readers of *The Times* during recent weeks. A leading article of September 20 discusses with refreshing candour the question of the communal feeding of school children. On any long-term view, says the article, the risk of some later appearance of serious symptoms of malnutrition must be averted. At present only 6 per cent of the school population receive meals in school. One correspondent to *The Times* objects to the extension of school meals as likely to diminish parental responsibility, though, as another correspondent suggests, one might have thought that parental responsibility was more seriously endangered by the boarding-school than by the day-school canteen. Lord Horder in reply asks, "Shall we not feed the children first and be doctrinaires afterwards?" We therefore heartily welcome the decision of the Government announced in Parliament on October 21: (1) to increase by 10 per cent the grant on expenditure by local education authorities on the provision of meals; (2) to raise the minimum rate of grant to 70 per cent; (3) to arrange for the supply at schools of meals from cookery depots; and (4) to pay the whole of the Milk-in-Schools scheme. This step, as Mr. Butler said in the House of Commons, should secure an immediate and large development of the service.

Plain Speaking on the Feeding of School Children.

MR. SIDNEY WEBB, now Lord Passfield, spoke of this unconscious conversion of the capitalist middle classes to Socialism in a conversation recorded by Mr. George Eastgate in *The Times* of August 23, 1902, and quoted by Mr. Arthur Bryant in *English Saga*: "The practical man, oblivious or contemptuous of any theory of the social organism or general principles of social organization, has been forced, by the necessities of the time, into an ever-deepening collectivist channel. Socialism, of course, he still rejects and despises. The individualist town councillor will walk along the municipal pavement, lit by municipal gas, and cleansed by municipal brooms with municipal water; and, seeing by the municipal clock in the municipal market that he is too early to meet his children coming from the municipal school, hard by the county lunatic asylum and municipal hospital, will use the national telegraph system to tell them not to walk through the municipal park, but to come by the municipal tramway to meet him in the municipal reading-room by the municipal art gallery, museum, and library, where he intends to consult some of the national publications in order to prepare his next speech in the municipal town hall in favour of the nationalization of canals and the increase of Government control over the railway system. 'Socialism, Sir', he will say, 'don't waste the time of a practical man by your fantastic absurdities. Self-help, Sir, individual self-help, that's what made our city what it is.'"

What is Socialism?"

WE welcome the appointment by the President of the Board of Education of a Committee, under the chairmanship of Sir Cyril Norwood, to advise him on suggested changes in the secondary school curriculum and the related question of school examinations. The Committee is composed of members of the Secondary School Examinations Council and includes representatives of the local education authorities, the teaching profession, and the university examination bodies. The chairman is given power to co-opt other members of the Examinations Council, and Mr. Barrow, H.M. Inspector, will act as Secretary. We hope that the Committee will not confine itself to suggesting alterations in the school curriculum or in the syllabus of examinations, but will deal effectively with what *The Times* in a leading article calls "the main point at issue—the relationship between curriculum and examinations". As the article suggests, there is some ground for fearing that the members of the new Committee stand too close to the problems to be able to view them with a completely objective eye. In a note in our July, 1941, number we said that the research work which has been done by Sir Philip Hartog and others into the value of examinations must have done something to shake our faith in their results. We referred to the cramping influence of external examinations upon the individuality of teachers and pupils in our secondary schools, and added that in children and in youths the power to take decisions and to make judgments for themselves is a more valuable quality than the power to

The New Committee on Secondary Education.

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reproduce information in written replies to an examination paper. This—and not mere details of curricula or of examinations—is " the main issue " with which the Committee will have to deal.

Agriculture: Short and Long-term Policies.

WE are told that the harvest has been good, and War Agricultural Executive Committees are now again planning to bring more acres under the plough so that next year also may produce the greatest possible addition to the nation's food supplies. This is an essential factor in the war effort, but we are justified in asking, just as the farmers themselves have asked, what planning is being done for the post-war years to ensure that agriculture remains a healthy and vital industry. In dealing with this very large question, it is clear that special attention will have to be given to recruitment and training. It is therefore gratifying to note that the Minister of Agriculture has appointed an advisory committee to consider and report upon agricultural education. A recent reply to a question in the House of Commons indicated that this committee would not confine itself to agricultural education as at present defined, but would also include within its terms of reference such investigation as was thought necessary into the main types of educational provision, elementary, secondary, and technical. While the setting up of such a committee is a welcome sign that post-war planning has not been forgotten, it is proper to ask whether this is the best method of investigation that could have been selected. It is stated that the Board of Education will be represented only by an assessor, and the members of the committee are appointed by the Minister of Agriculture.

Agricultural Education and the Central Authority.

THE appointment by the Minister of Agriculture of a special committee to deal with agricultural education is evidence of the present unhappy administrative division between the Board of Education and the Ministry of Agriculture. This division is carried into the local government service. In about half the county areas agricultural education is administered by a special Agricultural Committee; in the others it is in the charge of the Education Committee of the county. It is surely anomalous that in agriculture alone are education and training divorced from the general educational provision. Even before the war far-reaching changes were taking place in agricultural methods, and the war, with its urgency and the accompanying problem of labour shortage, will in all probability accelerate the rate of change. Modern farming methods, mechanization, and transport mean that a larger proportion of agricultural workers will require to have technical training. Intensive methods in farming will be bound to call for men who have the knowledge, the skill, and the initiative to carry out a planned series of operations. In addition, day-to-day maintenance and repair of agricultural machinery will call for an increased degree of mechanical skill. Is it not now time that training for agriculture, like training for the other great industries of the country, should become part of the province of the Board of Education? It seems clear that in future, central, secondary, and junior technical schools will each have a part to play in the provision of pre-apprenticeship training, and technical institutes and colleges should and will be able to supplement some of the work that will be required of farm institutes and of agricultural colleges and departments.

Paper for Books.

MR. STANLEY UNWIN, in a letter to *The Times*, calls attention to a serious danger. The Government's restrictions on the production of paper and strawboard are leading to an alarming decrease in the production of books. The present total allowance of paper for book production amounts, he says, to less than one per cent of the total consumption of paper and boards, and even this meagre amount is now made almost entirely from material produced at home. This restriction is imposed at a time when, as both booksellers and librarians can testify, the demand for books is greater then ever. The Government are urging us to read more American books and to send more British books to America, while bodies like the British Council are doing all in their power to promote the distribution of British books abroad. As the Minister of Information remarked at a luncheon of the National Book Council: " good English books are more effective than most of the lecturers let loose on America ". " All that is needed ", says Mr. Geoffrey Faber, " is that the problem should be seen for what it is, and be placed once and for all in its right perspective." Mr. Guy Bickers, the managing director of Messrs. G. Bell & Sons, points out that schools and universities are being kept waiting for books which they urgently need. One examining authority has already had to issue two amended lists of ' set books ' because those included in the original and in the first amended list were unobtainable. In the House of Lords Viscount Samuel pointed out that 20 million volumes had been destroyed by enemy action, and that it was in the national interest that the production of books should not be disastrously checked. We strongly agree.

Mr. Butler at Lincoln.

MR. BUTLER made a very good impression when he spoke at Lincoln. His declaration that the Board of Education had " torn its breast " sufficiently for the sake of the new and younger Departments which had necessarily grown up in war-time, and that we must now realize that there is a higher selfishness, expressed exactly what most educationists are thinking. Going on to consider the importance of education against the background of the war situation, he referred sympathetically to the difficulties occasioned by evacuation, while pointing out that this had afforded many opportunities for practical war work on the part of both teachers and children. The Youth Service of the Board was not just a war measure, but designed to take a permanent place in our educational system. The Board

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were supporting the work of the Council for the Encouragement of Music and the Arts (C.E.M.A.), and were also concentrating attention on Technical and Agricultural Training. His references to war-time nurseries, to school meals, and to medical care, showed that the Board are alive to health considerations. Mr. Butler gave good grounds for hope that the close of the war will see the initiation of educational reforms comparable to those associated with the name of H. A. L. Fisher.

Teachers to the Rescue?

SOME at least of the militant ecclesiastical leaders are so eager for drastic legislative action in regard to religious instruction in the school that, in order to secure it, they are in danger of devitalizing and denaturing the very thing for which they are striving. It is for teachers to save the jewel from dissolution. In fact, in so far as it is being saved at all even now, it is the quietly-working teachers who are largely responsible. Authorities everywhere accept the duty of making provision for religious teaching, and practically all teachers, whether they willingly take part in it or not, agree that it can be given effectively only by those who sincerely share the faith they teach. Should we not now seriously ask ourselves whether—apart from the minor legislative changes which we have advocated—anything more than this is possible, and indeed, whether the attempt to get more may not result in getting very much less? Anything that looks like a statutory sanction of tests for teachers, or like a giving of orders in place of reliance on sincerity and goodwill, is bound to have such a result. We were glad to see in a recent number of *Education* a striking article by Mr. Brockington, the Director of Education for Leicestershire, the main burden of which is: "I say, and say again, put your trust in the teachers." Is it wholly impossible for the bishops and their friends to follow this advice?

The Principle of the Boarding-School.

THE Headmaster of Clifton is reported as having urged recently that, after the war, service-camps should be converted into public schools so as to extend more widely the benefits of a public-school education. We hope most strongly that nothing at all will be done to act on such a suggestion unless two essential conditions are fulfilled. The first is that no use whatever should be made of the term 'public school'. To employ it with all its hampering and distorting associations in this connexion would be to condemn the whole scheme to shipwreck. The second condition is that the whole idea and plan of the boarding-school should be thought out afresh as a matter of pure educational principle. At present our ideas of boarding-schools are so strongly influenced by factors that are not educational at all that to embark on a new venture with such vitiated and uncriticized theoretical equipment would be to ruin a promising experiment at the outset. In the September number of *Adult Education* there is an article by Mr. J. H. Simpson which goes far to disentangle the pure idea of the boarding-school from the limiting and now somewhat cramping associations of the public school. The Headmaster of Clifton and those who think with him would do well to study this article with close attention.

The War Bonus Position.

THE dispute over the War Bonus seems at last to be settled. As we said last month, the recommendations of the Burnham Committee were sent to the constituent bodies for acceptance or rejection. Of the secondary associations the Headmasters and Assistant Mistresses have approved, the Assistant Masters have recommended approval, and the Headmistresses have not yet announced their decision, though we understand that it is likely to be favourable. At a special conference of the National Union of Teachers the advice of their Executive Committee was rejected in favour of an amendment expressing inability to accept the War Bonus offered by the Authorities' Panel, and instructing the Executive to appeal to the National Arbitration Tribunal with or without the consent of the local authorities. This amendment was carried on a card vote by 71,703 to 57,973. A further special Conference was summoned for October 25. This conference, which was attended by over 1,000 delegates, by a large majority agreed to accept the terms as set out on page 415 of our October number.

Religious Education in Wales.

THE Cardiganshire Education Committee has devoted a special meeting to the discussion of a memorandum on religious education drawn up by Rev. J. M. Lloyd Thomas, a member of the Cardigan County Council. He pleads for a marshalling of Christian forces in a county once "so rich in fervent evangelical influences, but now showing heart-breaking symptoms of cold avarice, worldliness, and decay", and makes a number of practical suggestions. In the Council schools the general practice appears to be that a short service is held in the morning consisting "only of the singing of a hymn and a recital of the Lord's Prayer"; and daily Scripture lessons are given consisting of "Scripture reading and subjects chosen by the teachers themselves. The syllabus (a special one adopted some twelve years ago) is not systematically followed, but in some schools it is consulted in choosing the lessons". The situation seems to be much the same in the Non-provided schools, with the addition of "distinctive denominational instruction". In the five county secondary schools "no religious instruction of any kind seems to be given" and this is very properly described as "disastrous". In spite of the importance of the issues raised by the memorandum, and the urgency of the situation as indicated in the appendix, the Committee at its meeting does not seem to have come to grips with the problem. The memorandum has been referred to the teachers of the county for examination and report, but religious leaders also should take cognizance of the position.

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ANGLO-AMERICAN CO-OPERATION

IN these days, when contacts between the United States of America and Great Britain are growing closer and closer, it is important that as full a knowledge as possible about America should be instilled into the minds of the young of this country. We congratulate the Board of Education and its officers on giving an inspiring lead in this movement by establishing a number of short courses for teachers dealing with various aspects of American life. The Board consider this problem to be of so vital importance that they have not been satisfied merely to arrange a number of courses, but are launching a nation-wide campaign. A memorandum in *The Schools in War-time* series on "The Teaching of the History of the United States of America" was issued late in July for circulation by local education authorities to senior and central schools. Another pamphlet, for the use of secondary schools, is to be issued shortly. It was originally decided that these courses should be organized regionally, with the intention ultimately of covering the whole country. Teachers from all types of schools, elementary, secondary, and technical, were invited, including lecturers in training colleges. Each course had to be limited to a week's duration, but the lecturers were asked to touch on as wide a range of topics as possible, and not to confine themselves merely to historical and geographical issues. Courses have already been held in London, Newcastle, Bingley (Yorks.), Oxford, Exeter, Maidstone, and Aberystwyth. In view of the remarkable response which the courses have elicited, the Board have now decided to run seven or eight further courses, one of which—the only one which will be residential and not on a regional basis—will be held, early next year, for tutors of adult classes from all over England, while the others will be located in the North-West, South-East, and in the East, North, and West Midlands.

The Board have been fortunate in securing the services of many English and American authorities of the highest rank—among others, Professor A. Newell, of "The American Outpost in Great Britain"; Major William Dwight Whitney, author of *Who are the Americans?*, now attached to Mr. Harriman's mission at the American Embassy; Mr. R. Birley, Headmaster of Charterhouse; and Mrs. Rathbone, M.P. The President of the Board, Mr. R. A. Butler, is taking a personal interest in this matter, and it was the American Ambassador, Mr. John G. Winant, who, opening the first of the courses in London, told his audience that he had begun life as a teacher of American history at a school in his own country, and that, when he came to this country as Ambassador and visited the different Ministries, one of the first visits he made was to the Board of Education, when the possibilities of undertaking such a campaign were discussed. Mr. Winant concluded his speech by saying: "If we could understand a little more about each other, we could be of very real help to each other". It is in this spirit that the courses have been arranged, and no efforts should be spared to deepen and to spread the knowledge that the teachers will have acquired. It is, therefore, good news that a number of local education authorities expressly selected teachers to attend these courses with the object of arranging local courses on the U.S.A. after the Board's lectures had taken place. Some of these, *e.g.* in Middlesex and Buckinghamshire, are already in train. This is a most encouraging sign, and it is hoped that every local authority in the country will follow this excellent example.

It is particularly fortunate that we have in the present American Ambassador one who has himself been a teacher of history, and, since that, has had the illuminating experience of a Director of the International Labour Organization. It would not be out of place to hazard a guess that his discerning interest and encouragement have had a considerable part in stimulating the present activity.

We trust, however, that efforts in the schools will not be confined to the teaching of American history. Apart from the fact that the general attitude towards history teaching in the schools is urgently in need of modernization, history alone, however well taught, will not cover all that is necessary. The attempt must be made at some interpretation of contemporary American life, if only to dispel the dangerous illusion that in some strange way the United States is a kind of transatlantic Britain, grown big and characterized by some queer ideas and some odd usages of the English language.

There are not lacking among us prophets of gloom who predict that the end of the war will find the Americans and ourselves farther apart than we were at the beginning of it. Without sharing this pessimistic view, we may still recognize that there are dangers—some obvious, some less so—in any systematic attempt to promote wider mutual understanding. For instance, some of us may have to shake off a peculiarly offensive tendency to be a little patronizing and superior to all things American. Americans are not likely to be pleased by an attitude which suggests that we are beginning to take a kindly interest in them and their well-meant efforts.

Again, in the States, as here, forms and realities are apt to differ widely. Patience, imagination, and honest objectivity of mind will be necessary if we are to penetrate the screen of appearances to the living, functioning society behind. Thus in a vivid and brilliant little book, *Politics and Law in the United States*, that lively expositor, Professor D. W. Brogan, lays bare some surprising realities of American politics behind the dignified veil of a venerated Constitution. Would it not be well if we resolved on our part to begin our approach to the study by a resolute self-examination, in order to detect any hampering prejudices which might otherwise give a disastrous twist to all that we learn and teach? Finally, we hope most devoutly that one effect of the war will be to swell to a great host those who insist on facilities to enable them to cross the ocean, and to see, hear, and understand for themselves something more of the ideas, the manners, and the institutions of their transatlantic cousins.

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IN GRATEFUL RETROSPECT

By Sir MICHAEL SADLER

I

DURING the fifty years in which I have had the good fortune to be an ' observer ' of these things, the countries which have played the chief part in colouring the educational outlook of thinking people everywhere are the United States and Germany. The achievements of American citizens in the Near East and in China have been effective in extending the influence of the United States, while the educational contributions of Germany include what came from Austria and (to a limited degree) from German-speaking Switzerland. Of the other countries which exerted world-wide educational influence, France no longer showed the dynamic which distinguished her from the days of Port Royal to the sunset of the Revolution, though the masterpieces of her painters had unrivalled power over the eye of mind. In the field of educational policy the English were collectively the most hesitant, though not the least well-meaning. Millenarian influence for nearly two decades after the last war had its chief crater in Soviet Russia. The Germans were kind and very painstaking, though some of them got feverish and even minatory. Of all nations the Americans advanced on the widest front. They welcomed new ideas ; showed unflagging energy ; scrapped what they judged obsolete ; and promptly backed experimental enterprise out of taxes or from private liberality. Broadly speaking, and notwithstanding tragic retrogression in Central Europe, the most pervasive influence in world-education at this juncture is American.

Hosts of British men and women, in the course of their thoughts about education, have felt the thrill of American influence. It braced them when they were baffled. It cheered them when they were discouraged. They liked its hospitality. Its energy, many-sidedness, and large-hearted optimism were tonic. America looks towards the future—and to what the future may bring.

But in welcoming what is American, the British did not lose the idiosyncrasies of their own educational past. And among the British, the English experienced the subtlest reactions. Folk-memories of old disputes made them distrust any over-simplification of the fundamental problem which lies athwart any thorough-going policy in national education, *viz.* the awkward fact that an education which does its complete work belongs both to God and to Caesar. Secondly, the English still find it hard to think themselves free from the three-layer (but not impermeable) stratification of their society, with its educational habits adjusted to the spending-power and ways of life prevalent in each layer. Thirdly, different groups in the English community, now as in the seventeenth century, incline temperamentally to converse systems of social governance. One of the two submits itself not unreadily to collective control of morals and congregational order, provided that economic individualism is allowed. The other is not indisposed to submit to a rather mild sort of economic collectivism, provided that the law and the police allow a good deal of liberty to individuals in affairs of the heart and in private interpretation of religious duty.

II

Benjamin Franklin was the first American to cheer us up in our Sunday-go-to-meeting moods about education. He knew how ' to electrize a person twenty times running with a touch of the finger on the wire '. And any English educationist, who feels that he is

> ' wandering between two worlds, one dead,
> the other powerless to be born ',

is the better for cocktails shaken by Poor Richard, or by Mr. Dooley, or in ' The Education of Hyman Caplan '.

Medicinally the libertarianism of President Charles Eliot's ' elective system ' was an alterative to the calvinism of the German doctrine of *Allgemeine Bildung*, which appealed rather dangerously at one time to a few English administrators including R. B. Haldane. But the American therapy which has done most for us is electrical. Most of the current that unstiffened our joints came direct to England, *e.g.* from Walt Whitman's *Leaves of Grass*, from William James, and from John Dewey's *School and Society*. But sometimes it was generated in Pestalozzian Germany and relayed to Britain from somewhere in the United States. Who, for example, lifted the ban on Comenius ? Readers will remember that in 1661 his fame in England as a pansophic pioneer in school-planning (a forerunner of Mr. H. G. Wells in some of his moods of prophecy) was suddenly eclipsed. His school-books (bright, astringent fruit from what he ruefully called " *spinosa didactica* ") kept some of their vogue. But the Comenius, of whom Milton had written respectfully seventeen years before, suddenly became unmentionable in London, and, so far as most English readers were concerned, passed into oblivion for two centuries. Robert Owen, who was a kindred spirit, published *The Book of the New Moral World* in 1836, evidently without having any knowledge of Comenius. But in 1842 a professor of mineralogy in the University of Erlangen, Karl von Raumer, published in his *Geschichte der Pädagogik* an admirable and moving chapter on the great Moravian's vision of the future in education. To this book the alert and watchful Henry Barnard (afterwards the first U.S. Commissioner of Education) drew the attention of the readers of his *American Journal of Education*. Here it caught the eye of a Harrow master, R. H. Quick, who wrote *Essays on Educational Reformers* and rightly dedicated it to Henry Barnard. Quick's book, especially the second edition which appeared in 1868, was a torch alight. For English readers, the occultation of Comenius ended. Simon Laurie and M. W. Keating (both writing in Edinburgh) made him swim like a planet into the English ken and in recent years R. F. Young's scholarship has scrutinized his place in the orrery. For the beginnings of the revival of his fame in England a debt is due to the American Henry Barnard and, at a critical time in the struggle for better schools for the people, English educationists, like James Fraser, got from the influence of Horace Mann an electric shock of encouragement and hope.

III

From public libraries in America the English learnt to ask for a less austere economy in staffing and equipment. Those of us who knew New York State forty years ago have lively memories of the galvanic Melvil Dewey. Open access to the shelves in some of the American university libraries is gratefully remembered by English scholars who have profited by them, and every lover of S. T. Coleridge is under obligation to Harvard College library for the ' large freedom ' which it gave to John Livingston Lowes. In the sphere of adult education, Dr. Paton's report on Bishop Vincent's *Chatauqua* encouraged us to venture on the first Oxford Summer Meeting in the early nineties. As regards the printed page, we are under heavy obligation of which only a hint can be given here. The British educationist will not forget what he owes to the generously distributed reports of the Bureau of Education in Washington (a series which in 1895 reinforced Arthur Acland's determination to get a Department of Special Inquiries and Reports set up in the English Education Office) ; and to the beloved W. T. Harris and others who have followed him in the Commissioner's office ; to Paul Monroe, E. P. Cubberley, and I. L. Kandel for studies in the history and national

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idiosyncrasies of education; to Stanley Hall's *Adolescence*; to Nicholas Murray Butler from the days of his editorship of the *Educational Review* onwards; to the reports of the Mosely Commissioners and to Helen Parkhurst's Dalton Plan; to E. L. Thorndike, C. H. Judd, Abraham Flexner, and President Hutchins of Chicago; to the blue-grey booklets of H. W. Holmes and President Conant of Harvard; to the Lynds for both instalments of *Middletown*; to Theodore Dreiser, Sinclair Lewis, and many other living novelists, as well as of course to Louisa M. Alcott and Henry James.

In far-off days President Walker and James Phinney Munroe taught a young Englishman much about the relations between an institute of technology and an adjacent university. Munroe took him to a town's meeting in Massachusetts which was a sadly etiolated survival of Puritan local government, but the opposite number to the Court of the Virginia Company with its Cavalier instructions about education. In America, Cavalier and Puritan ideals of public duty towards popular education were kept geographically at a distance from one another down the Atlantic seaboard. But an Englishman knows only too well what deadlocks persist when both plants grow side by side in the same pot. Inspiring to one who revered General Armstrong was Hampton Institute under Dr. Frissell, and the welcome given by Booker Washington to Tuskegee. W. E. B. Du Bois' poignant *Souls of Black Folk* had its message for an Englishman who, years later, served on the Advisory Committee on Education set up by the Colonial Office in London. But by that time Dr. Wallace Buttrick and the General Education Board had got far forward with their great work; the Rosenwald schools and the Jeanes Fund and other agencies were active; and the Phelps-Stokes Fund had sent out under the magnetic leadership of Thomas Jesse Jones the expeditions which surveyed educational policies in West and East Africa.

Nothing in England, as yet, except Rhodes Trust and the Nuffield benefactions, can be compared with the guided munificence of the great American foundations. The Rockefeller Trustees thrilled us by making possible the building of the new University Library at Cambridge and of the new Bodleian at Oxford. Under Dr. Keppel's guidance, the Carnegie Foundation has made it possible for Philip Hartog and his colleagues to probe into the bindweed of examinations which half-chokes some of the teaching in many of our secondary schools but cannot ruthlessly be torn away without leaving room for a worse pest. These however are but two of many benefactions for which, as for Mr. Harkness' Pilgrim Trust, Britain is thankful. And all who have been concerned with the financial administration of our newer universities, or yearn for a more civilized standard in the buildings and appurtenances of many English primary schools, know that American example exerts a deepening influence towards better things, just as the swift growth of public high schools which began in the United States in 1890 proved a powerful incentive to the establishment of new secondary schools in England half a generation later. And, though Britain still has no counterpart to Teachers College, Columbia University, with its international service and prestige, every training college in England, including the departments in the universities, has felt the stimulus of American study and experience, and the Institute of Education in the University of London bids fair to grow into a big and fruitful tree.

To one English student who cherishes bright memories of educational journeys made during the last fifty years, America seems still to beckon a welcome. The French tradition in education fascinates him, but (except in the writings of Felix Pécaut and Jean Delvolvé) seems short of a vitamin in what (till Vichy) could be called her official educational policy. Germany was radiant with personal memories of Friedrich Paulsen, Wilhelm Rein, Reinhardt of the Goethe Gymnasium in Frankfort, and Georg Kerschensteiner chortling at his '*Indianer-schmuck*' after an official reception in Munich. But in the background in Prussia (and not only in Prussia) a lurking danger frightened him.

He hopes it is not unseemly to recall a personal experience. His friend Max Walter had asked him to speak at the *Neuphilologentag* in Frankfurt and the subject chosen for his address was 'England's debt to German Education'. The great hall was filled by a massive audience of professors from all over German-speaking Europe. They listened to him with attention and purred approval. But, when he had got to the end of his manuscript, he felt that he had told only half the truth and extemporized an appendix. In this he tried to explain why England had not followed Germany in all her educational policy and said that the English took a different view of the ultimate authority of the State. When they heard this, the company growled like a tiger.

But it is wise for a student of systems of education to keep in mind what the Delphic Oracle said: "Think Good of other men, and not Evil. But Know Thyself".

Oh, Jonathan, dear Jonathan! a wretched world we see;
There's scarce a freeman in it now, excepting you and me.
In soldier-ridden Christendom the sceptre is the sword;
The statutes of the nation from the cannon's mouth are roared.

Ordnance the subject multitude for ordinance obey;
The bullet and the bayonet debate at once allay:
The mouth is gagg'd, the Press is stopp'd, and we remain alone
With power our thoughts to utter, or to call our souls our own.

They hate us, brother Jonathan, those tyrants; they detest
The island sons of liberty and freemen of the West;
It angers them that we survive their savage will to stem,
A sign of hope unto their slaves—a sign of fear to them.

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(*Punch*, January 10, 1852, page 13.)

What if our numbers barely could defy
The arithmetic of babes, must foreign hordes,
Slaves, vile as ever were befooled by words,
Striking through English breasts the anarchy
Of Terror, bear us to the ground, and tie
Our hands behind our backs with felon cords?
Yields every thing to discipline of swords?
Is man as good as man, none low, none high?—
Nor discipline nor valour can withstand
The shock, nor quell the inevitable rout,
When in some great extremity breaks out
A people, on their own beloved Land
Risen, like one man, to combat in the sight
Of a just God for liberty and right.

Wordsworth. Published 1837.

Disraeli wrote in 1840, at the outset of his political career: "Hitherto we have been preserved from the effects of the folly of modern legislation by the wisdom of our ancient manners. The national character may yet save the Empire. The national character is more important than the Great Charter or trial by jury." On the dusty roads from Mons to Marne river, in the blood-stained agony of Somme and Passchendaele, on Dunkirk Beach and in the skies above the Channel, the truth of that century-old prediction became clear.

Arthur Bryant, *English Saga*.

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BOOKS ON AMERICAN HISTORY, 1783-1914

By R. BIRLEY, Headmaster of Charterhouse

IN July, 1941, the Board of Education issued a Memorandum on the teaching of the History of the United States. Official recognition has, therefore, been given to the need for the study of American History in British schools. In this article an attempt will be made to consider some of the books that are now available for this new departure in English education. Particular attention will be paid to those books that are now in print, though reference will be made to others which can probably be obtained from county or borough libraries. It may be assumed that books of which no details are given are out of print.

There is naturally a scarcity of text-books for this branch of historical study, though the demand will doubtless call forth the supply. Perhaps the most useful at the moment is Cecil Chesterton's *History of the United States*. This is a provocative book, often wrong-headed and inaccurate, but it was written by an enthusiast; it is very readable, and it covers the ground without succumbing to any of the ordinary weaknesses of text-book histories. It should certainly be read only in the edition prepared by Professor D. W. Brogan (Dent, Everyman Library, 1940, 3s.), who has provided footnotes which will steer the reader through the author's various errors of fact and judgment. Mention may be made of two histories which are typical of the two main categories into which most historical text-books seem to fall. *An American History*, by Professor D. S. Muzzey (Ginn & Co., 1929, 9s. 6d.) is an example of the more old-fashioned kind, divided into numbered paragraphs, each with its own appropriate heading. It is thorough and, for a text-book, remarkably complete, though stronger on the political than on the social or economic aspects. *A Short History of America*, by J. E. Tyler (W. & R. Chambers, Ltd., 1940, 6s.) is written as a consecutive narrative and is certainly more readable. It, too, may be said to pay almost undue attention to the political story. The author is liable, as an act of piety, to refer to some well-known incident in American history, forgetting that for an English reader a mere reference may be quite meaningless. For instance, phrases such as " a debate in the Senate, in which Daniel Webster with tremendous eloquence preached the doctrine of indissoluble union ", or " it was because of his famous ' cross of gold ' speech in this Convention that the nomination eventually fell to Bryan ", are of no value to a student who has never heard of Webster's reply to Hayne or of W. J. Bryan's speech at Chicago. The point is of some importance. It is essential that British pupils should be taught something of the " folk-lore " of American history, those famous incidents which have been seized upon unconsciously by the people as somehow typical of the forces that made their destiny. *The Making of American Civilization*, by C. A. and Mary Beard (Macmillan, 1937, 12s. 6d.) is written by two of the greatest modern American historians. It was intended for use in schools, but, although it is often fresh and stimulating, it is not altogether satisfactory for this purpose. A stricter adherence to the chronological sequence is essential in a text-book, and it is likely to confuse a beginner at the subject to find, for example, Tom Paine's *Common Sense* dealt with after *The Crisis*.

The first need felt by a teacher will naturally be for some fairly detailed history of the United States, on the accuracy and good judgment of which he can rely, to serve as a framework for his own studies. Fortunately such a book exists for British readers in Professor S. G. Morison's *The Oxford History of the United States*, 1783–1917 (2 volumes, Oxford University Press, 1927, 32s. net). This is an admirable survey, and it will make known to him the main fruits of recent American historical studies. It is most successful, perhaps, in treating the progress of American political development. There are excellent chapters on the United States before the Civil War and on the struggle itself. It is considerably more than a text-book; the author possessed a remarkable power of relevant quotation, which does much to enliven the work, and he had also a singularly balanced point of view, which did not preclude him from delivering strong criticisms at times. The same publishers have produced in the United States an extension of this work by Professor S. E. Morison and Professor H. S. Commager, *The Growth of the American Republic*, 1763–1936 (two volumes, 1937, 25s. net. Vol. I, 12s. 6d. net. Vol. II, 15s. net.) Besides dealing with the War of Independence and the period during and after America's participation in the last war, this book is considerably fuller on the social and economic development of the country since the Civil War. The chapters in the second volume on the Passing of the Frontier, Transport, Labour, Agriculture, the Economic Revolution, and Immigration are very vivid and, though intended primarily for the American student, should be none the less useful in this country. *The Oxford Dictionary of American History* (six volumes, Oxford University Press, 1941, £17 net) is one of those publications which lighten the work of any teacher or student. A great number of subjects are dealt with severally in short articles by American scholars. As a work of reference, to supplement ordinary reading by bringing easily to hand the results of recent research, it would be invaluable, and any school library which possessed this great work of reference would be fortunate indeed.

Few writers have done more to introduce new points of view into American history than Charles and Mary Beard. Their various works on particular subjects are not easily obtainable in this country, but their views are conveniently summarized in their book, the *Rise of American Civilization* (two volumes, Jonathan Cape, 1927, 18s. net). Of special value are the chapters dealing with the founding of the Constitution, expounding the economic forces then at work, on the rivalry between Jefferson and Hamilton, and, above all, that in the second volume on " The Second American Revolution ". No one who reads this chapter is ever likely again to make the mistake of thinking that the Civil War was fought simply on the issues of Slavery and the preservation of the Union.

A few other recent histories may be mentioned. J. T. Adams' *A History of the American People* (Vol. I, to the Civil War, Vol. II, From Civil War to World Power), though not as stimulating as his *Epic of America*, to be considered later, and not so full or scholarly as Professor Morison's work, is very readable and thoroughly sensible. It contains a brilliant choice of illustrations. H. V. Faulkner's *A Short History of the American People* (George Allen & Unwin, 1938, 18s.) is certainly one of the best one-volume histories. It is particularly useful on the economic aspect, and the point of view of the author may be seen from the title of the chapter dealing with the fighting in the Civil War, " Clash of Economic Sections ". W. E. Woodward's *A New American History* (Faber & Faber, 1938, 12s. 6d.) is vivacious and sometimes rather too smart. The author's point of view may be seen from this quotation: " The Southern planter was a romantic person—and full of buncombe, like the abolitionists and nearly every one else ". *The American Presidents*, by Herbert Agar, a famous American journalist, takes up a more earnest standpoint, though it is occasionally rather gossiping. It is the kind of book which should certainly be in a school library to stimulate a boy or girl who had begun to be interested in American history.

Perhaps the most important single piece of work on American history was F. J. Turner's essay on *The Signi-*

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ficance of the Frontier in American History, which has not been published in this country. It stimulated a remarkable amount of research on this problem and its effect is noticeable in almost all subsequent histories. Professor S. E. Morison's *Sources and Documents Illustrating the American Revolution and the Formation of the Federal Constitution* (Oxford University Press, 1923, 10s. 6d. net) contains an introduction which brings out clearly the influence of frontier problems on the revolt of the Thirteen Colonies, an aspect of the subject largely neglected by the traditional English historians. But the British reader will find his best introduction to the school of American historians, who have seen in the expansion through and the development of their continent the real interest of their national story, to be J. T. Adams' *The Epic of America* (Routledge, 1940, 7s. 6d.). This is not a text-book, and it supposes a certain knowledge of American history. It is a very fine historical essay, and no other book brings out in a more stimulating way the drama and excitement of the rise of the United States. Unlike many histories of America, the interest is not centred in the Eastern seaboard. The river Mississippi is the true hero of the story. It is, perhaps, particularly valuable for its study of Jacksonian democracy, and it might be argued that for an English student some understanding of this phenomenon is at once the most important and the most difficult task that confronts him.

American history seems sometimes to be a strange medley, in which lawless enterprise has gone hand in hand with a traditional reverence for the Constitution and for the law. The classic study on the American Constitution is Viscount Bryce's *The American Commonwealth* (two volumes, Macmillan, 1928, 42s.), the first edition of which was published in 1888. Subsequent editions, though doing something to bring the work more up to date, are not proportionately more valuable. One of the great advantages of this study lies in the fact that Bryce did not confine himself only to the Federal Government, but dealt also with those of the separate States. He was, of course, a great nineteenth-century Liberal and his work is naturally coloured by a number of liberal suppositions which were not always helpful when dealing with the Constitution in operation. An English reader should certainly also consult a very lively little book by Professor H. L. McBain, *The Living Constitution* (Macmillan, 1928, 4s.). The author makes it clear that many of the accepted formulae of American political theory, such as that of " the separation of powers ", are of doubtful validity when the actual government of the country is considered. The book gains much from a number of suggestive comparisons with British constitutional theory and practice. Extracts from the debates in the Federal Convention at Philadelphia, the key to so much of early American history, may be found in Professor Morison's collection of documents, and the story of the Convention is told shortly in the first volume of Professor Hockett's *The Constitutional History of the United States* (Macmillan, Volume I, The Blessings of Liberty, 1776–1826, 1939. Volume II, A More Perfect Union, 1826–1876, 1940. 12s. 6d. each.) This is a clear, straightforward account of American constitutional history and it will be found particularly useful for its summaries of the leading cases before the Supreme Court. These should be familiar to any English student, not only those which produced Marshall's famous opinions and the vital Dred Scott case, but also certain others, less well known, which had a decisive influence on American history, such as Charles River Bridge Company *v.* Warren Bridge Company, *ex parte* Merryman and the Slaughter-house cases. A study of Marshall's views is essential to any consideration of American history and Bryce's survey of Marshall's influence on the development of the constitutional theory of the United States is one of the greatest passages in his book. The most important work of American political theory is, of course, *The Federalist* (Dent, Everyman Library, 3s.).

The greatest difficulty likely to face an English student lies in the field of biographical study. He will not find it easy to obtain satisfactory lives of any of the great American statesmen, except Abraham Lincoln and Theodore Roosevelt. F. S. Oliver's *Alexander Hamilton* is a great deal too prejudiced and inaccurate to be of any real value. Lord Charnwood's *Abraham Lincoln* (Constable, 1924, 10s. 6d. net) is an admirable and sympathetic study, with a careful account of the causes of the Civil War. The same author has written a life of *Theodore Roosevelt* (Constable, 10s. 6d. net). Lieut.-Colonel G. F. R. Henderson's *Stonewall Jackson*, now unfortunately out of print, is one of the finest of all military biographies, too whole-heartedly a piece of hero-worship, and certainly needing to be checked by recent work on the Civil War, summarized, for example, in Professor Morison's History; but, for all that, perhaps the greatest work on American history by an English writer. Sir Frederick Maurice's *Lee the Soldier* is limited in scope, as its title explains, but it gives a good portrait of its subject and a very clear account of the campaigns in the Peninsula. David Knowle's *The American Civil War* is not very satisfactory on the military history, but contains beautifully-written appreciations of Lincoln and Robert E. Lee. Lincoln's oratory may be studied in *Letters and Speeches of Abraham Lincoln* (Dent, Everyman Library, 3s.), but the speeches are unfortunately mutilated, even the Second Inaugural Address being allowed only excerpts.

The greatest work by any foreigner on the United States is de Tocqueville's *Democracy in America*, written after his visit to that country in 1833, and it is greatly to be regretted that there is no English translation of this work in print in this country. It is much more than a traveller's account; it is a most acute account of American civilization, and a recognition of the importance of the American experiment. Much in the subsequent development of the country will be more fully understood after a study of this book. The only work which can be compared with it is Walt Whitman's *Democratic Vistas* (Dent, Everyman Library, 3s.): de Tocqueville was a practised and careful observer. The same cannot be said of Charles Dickens and Frances Trollope. The English student should certainly read or re-read *Martin Chuzzlewit* and *American Notes* by Dickens (various editions), and *The Domestic Manners of the Americans*, by Mrs. Trollope, but he must remember that they were the products of rather unusual people. He would do well to read also Giles Alington's *The Growth of America* (Faber, 1940, 12s. 6d.). This is a clear and readable account of American history up to the Civil War, but it is almost too uncritical. It would seem difficult after the work of the Beards, for example, to accept quite so readily the orthodox view of the founding of the Federal Constitution. But the chapter on American social life is excellent, particularly that part which describes the great quarrel between Dickens and the Americans over the Copyright Laws, a dispute which explains much of that author's spleen. Of the works of American explorers, travellers, and settlers, a rich mine, there exists one classic example to be procured in this country, Francis Parkman's *The Oregon Trail* (various editions). It is the indispensable introduction to any study of the Red Indians and the Great Plains.

An Englishman studying the history of the United States will be well advised to turn to American fiction to provide the necessary background. He will not find much that is of value before the Civil War. Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (various editions) is a historical document, to be read with due caution, but not to be cast aside as a tract. The novels of W. G. Simms, which would give a picture of the South before the Civil War, are not obtainable. Nathaniel Hawthorne's *Blithedale Romance* (Dent, Everyman, 3s. net) will show him something of transcendentalist New England, as will the familiar stories of Louisa Alcott. It is after the Civil War that American fiction came into its own. The English reader will at least begin to understand something of the size and complexity of the United States when he realizes that Bret Harte,

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whose *Luck of Roaring Camp and other Stories* (Dent, Everyman, 3s.) are the classic picture of the "Mining Frontier"; Sarah Orme Jewett, whose stories are the best introduction to New England society after the Civil War, especially *The Country of the Pointed Firs* (Jonathan Cape, Travellers' Library, 3s. 6d.); George W. Cable, whose *Old Creole Days* will remind him that New Orleans is still in part a French city; and Mark Twain were, all four, contemporary American writers. Mark Twain's *Tom Sawyer, Huckleberry Finn*, and *Life on the Mississippi* (various editions) are, of course, essential for any study of American civilization. For English readers they are the perfect antidote to *Martin Chuzzlewit*. In the half-century after the Civil War the United States produced a great number of novels which are invaluable for a study of the political history and the social development of the period, though some of the most famous, such as William Dean Howell's *The Rise of Silas Lapham*, the portrait of the American "self-made man", and William Allen White's *A Certain Rich Man*, describing the development of Kansas, are not easy to come by here. The two main themes are the exploitation of the soil and of the mineral wealth of the continent by an ever-increasing number of settlers, and the clash between the rising business interests and the ordinary American. The former can be studied in the novels of Willa Cather, such as *My Antonia* and *O Pioneers*, dealing with the settlers in Nebraska, in Ole Rölvaag's *Giants in the Earth*, which tells of the struggles of the Norwegian immigrants in Dakota (it is not without significance that what is perhaps the finest American novel on the American farmer had to be translated from the Norwegian), and Owen Wister's *The Virginian* (Nelson, 2s.), the best-known picture of the cowboy, over sentimental, no doubt, but a useful corrective to the film version of the subject. Winston Churchill in *Coniston* and *Mr. Crewe's Career* (Macmillan, 5s. net) told of the power of the railroad corporations in the politics of New England, and Frank Norris' *The Octopus* (Nelson, 2s.) of their remorseless hold over the farmers of California. With Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle* (Werner Laurie, 5s. net), which exposed, in 1906, the horrors of the Chicago stockyards and the corrupt influences of the packing interests, these are good examples of the novels which deal with the predominant American social and political problem of the time, a problem still unsolved. Finally, the South after the Civil War may be seen in the novels of Ellen Glasgow, especially, perhaps, *Virginia* and *The Voice of the People*, which deal with a subject, usually over sentimentalized, with a firm and sympathetic judgment.

Genuinely historical novels are in a different category. Here what is chiefly needed is a note of warning. The Civil War, and especially the romance of the defeated South, have called forth a school of American fiction which can hardly be taken seriously by the historian. The war, however, forms the setting of one novel by Winston Churchill, *The Crisis* (Macmillan, 5s. net), which contains a good portrait of Lincoln; and the Civil War stories of Ambrose Bierce, some of which may be found in *In the Midst of Life* (Allen Lane, Penguin Library, 6d.) should be enough to cure most people of a tendency to romanticize that grim and terrible struggle. And those who wish to read their fiction of this period with a Southern flavour should go to Ellen Glasgow's *The Battleground*, which is worth a shelf of more exuberant fiction on the subject.

The reader who turns to American poetry must notice one point, that the great poets of the middle of the century were Abolitionists, almost to a man, but some of Whittier's poems, such as *The Farewell of a Virginian Slave Mother, Massachusetts to Virginia, Ichabod*, and *The Kansas Emigrants*, and Lowell's dialect poems, called *The Biglow Papers*, especially those in the first series satirizing the Southern expansionists, are indispensable records of their period. The poems of Henry Timrod and Sidney Lanier are the best memorials of the South; Walt Whitman's *Drum Taps* and *Specimen Days* of the North.

But there are two poems which deserve special consideration. It is arguable that the Presidential Election of 1896, finely described in J. T. Adam's *Epic of America*, was the turning point of modern American history. Although W. J. Bryan was defeated, his great fight ushered in a new period of reform and the United States began to turn its back on the most disappointing years of its history. Vachel Lindsay's poem, *Bryan, Bryan, Bryan, Bryan* (Collected Poems, Macmillan, 15s.), is a superb evocation of that crisis. Stephen Vincent Benét's *John Brown's Body*, most unfortunately out of print in this country, is a truly magnificent survey of the American Civil War. The poem is a kind of novel in verse, as readable as a romance, but extraordinarily economical in treatment. More than a story, it is a moving record of a social cataclysm. In its own form it is undoubtedly one of the greatest of American histories.

BOOKS ON AMERICAN HISTORY SINCE 1913

By H. H. BELLOT, Commonwealth Fund Professor of American History in the University of London

AMERICANS do not accept, so readily as we do, the idea that recent events cannot be scientifically studied; and the English reader is better served with books on the history of the United States since the inauguration of Wilson in 1913 than he is with books on the history of his own country since the outbreak of the first World War in 1914. He will find an excellent introduction to the history of the United States in the twentieth century in C. A. Beard, *Contemporary American History, 1877–1913* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1914), and P. H. Buck, *The Road to Reunion* (Little, Brown & Co.: Boston, 1937). The standard work of reference, corresponding to the *Political History of England*, published by Messrs. Longmans, or to the *Oxford History of England*, will, it is true, carry him no farther than the entry of the United States into the war, in F. A. Ogg, *National Progress, 1907–1917* (*The American Nation*, ed. by A. B. Hart, vol. xxvii; Harper, 1918); but Mr. Ensor's volume in the Oxford series only reaches 1914, and, for the United States, there are other general, if less comprehensive, books which fill the gap—P. W. Slosson, *The Great Crusade and After, 1914–1928* (*A History of American Life*, ed. by A. M. Schlesinger and D. R. Fox, vol. xii; Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1930), D. L. Dumond, *Roosevelt to Roosevelt* (Henry Holt: N.Y. 1936), J. S. Malin, *The United States after the World War* (Ginn, 1930), and L. M. Hacker, *American Problems of To-day; a History of the United States Since the World War* (Crafts: N.Y. 1938).

On Woodrow Wilson, the leading authorities are R. S. Baker, *Woodrow Wilson, Life and Letters*, 8 vol. (Doubleday, Doran: Garden City, N.Y. 1927–39) and the same author's *Woodrow Wilson and World Settlement*, published in three volumes by the same firm in 1922, together with R. S. Baker and W. E. Dodd, *The Public Papers of Woodrow Wilson*, 6 vol. (Harper, 1925–7). The first two volumes of the *Life* are one of the best of academic biographies. Vol. III deals with the New Jersey governorship and the election to the Presidency, and Vol. IV with the first year in office. Volumes V and VI are an illuminating account of the period of neutrality, 1914–1917. Volumes VII and VIII, 1917–November 1918, deal, much less satisfactorily, with the period of American participation in the war. The narrative exposition is abandoned, and the reader is given instead a collection of excerpts from the President's private papers.

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The volumes will be baffling to any general reader who is trying seriously to follow the course of events, and the material is too fragmentary, and drawn from too restricted a source, to be of much value as an original authority. Moreover, the work is still incomplete, even with the addition of the three volumes on *World Settlement*, for we still lack any detailed account of the last months of the administration.

For the bibliography of the general history of the war the reader must go elsewhere. It is only possible to note here the books which deal more strictly with the American part in it. On Wilson's diplomacy there are C. Seymour, *Woodrow Wilson and the World War* (*Chronicles of America*, ed. A. Johnson, vol. xlviii; Yale University Press, 1921), two volumes in which President Seymour deals with the subject more fully, *American Diplomacy during the World War* (Johns Hopkins Press: Baltimore, 1934) and *American Neutrality, 1914–1917* (Milford, 1935), H. Notter, *The Origins of the Foreign Policy of Woodrow Wilson* (Johns Hopkins Press: Baltimore, 1937), C. C. Tansill, *America Goes to War* (Little, Brown: Boston, 1938), and A. M. Morrissey, *The American Defense of Neutral Rights, 1914–1917* (Harvard University Press, 1939), together with two convenient collections of documents compiled by J. B. Scott, *A Survey of International Relations between the United States and Germany, August 1, 1914–April 6, 1917* (Oxford University Press, 1917), and *President Wilson's Foreign Policy; Messages, Addresses, Papers* (Oxford University Press, 1918). The Secretaries of State, from Bryan to Hughes, are dealt with in S. F. Bemis, ed., *The American Secretaries of State and their Diplomacy*, vol. x (Knopf: N.Y. 1929). The official papers relating to the war, issued by the Department of State, are contained in a series of *Supplements* to the annual volumes of *Foreign Relations* 1914–18, running to 7 volumes published in 9 parts, 1928–33, and in two volumes of *Lansing Papers, 1914–1920*, published in 1939–40. The legal history of the war is dealt with in C. C. Hyde, *International Law, chiefly as interpreted and applied by the United States*, 2 vol. (Little, Brown: Boston, 1922), and J. W. Garner, *International Law and the World War*, 2 vol. (Longmans, 1920); the military and naval history, in J. G. Harbord, *America in the World War* (Houghton Mifflin: Boston, 1933) and *The American Expeditionary Force* (Evanston Publ. Co.: Evanston, Illinois, 1929), and T. G. Frothingham, *The Naval History of the World War*, vol. iii, *The United States in the War, 1917–1918* (Harvard University Press, 1926); the economic and social history, in G. B. Clarkson, *Industrial America in the World War* (Houghton Mifflin: N.Y. 1923) and the volumes in the *Economic and Social History of the World War*, edited by J. T. Shotwell for the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. To these monographic studies and official papers there has already been added a number of important memoirs and collections of personal papers. Among these, C. Seymour, *The Intimate Papers of Colonel House*, 4 vol. (Houghton Mifflin: Boston, 1926–8) stands in a class by itself, though F. Palmer, *Bliss, peacemaker; the Life and Letters of General Tasker Howard Bliss* (Dodd, Mead: N.Y. 1934) deals with a figure who played at the Peace Conference an almost equally notable part. Cabinet ministers have given us R. Lansing, *War Memoirs of Robert Lansing, Secretary of State* (Bobbs-Merrill: Indianapolis and N.Y. 1935), W. G. McAdoo, *Crowded Years* (Cape, n.d.), A. W. Lane and L. H. Wall, ed., *The Letters of Franklin K. Lane* (Houghton Mifflin: Boston, 1922), and D. F. Houston, *Eight Years with Wilson's Cabinet, 1913 to 1920*, 2 vol. (Doubleday, Page: Garden City, N.Y., 1926). In addition there are J. J. Pershing, *My Experiences in the World War*, 2 vol. (Stokes: N.Y. 1931), C. G. Dawes, *A Journal of the Great War*, 2 vol. (Houghton Mifflin: Boston, 1921), and a group of diplomatic memoirs including S. Gwynn, *The Letters and Friendships of Sir Cecil Spring Rice*, 2 vol. (Constable, 1929), B. J. Hendrick, *The Life and Letters of Walter Hines Page*, 3 vol. (Doubleday, Page: N.Y. 1922–5), T. B. Mott, *Myron T. Herrick, Friend of France* (Doubleday, Doran: Garden City, N.Y., 1929), M. P. Briggs, *George D. Herron and the European Settlement* (Stanford University Press, 1932), C. Dumba, *Memoirs of a Diplomat* (Little, Brown: Boston, 1932), A. Nevins, *The Letters and Journa, of Brand Whitlock*, 2 vol. (D. Appleton-Century Co.: N.Y. 1936), and J. H. A. H. A. Graf von Bernstorff, *My Three Years in America* (Scribner: N.Y., 1920; Skeffington: London, 1920).

For a more detailed study of the domestic affairs of the United States in the post-war years than is provided by any of the books mentioned in the first paragraph, there are *Recent Social Trends in the United States: Report of the President's Committee on Social Trends*, 2 vol. (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933), A. N. Holcombe, *The Political Parties of To-day* (Harper, 1924), R. C. Brooks, *Political Parties and Electoral Problems* (Harper, 1923), E. E. Robinson, *The Presidential Vote, 1896–1932* (Milford, 1934), C. A. and W. Beard, *The American Leviathan* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1930), C. H. Woody, *The Growth of the Federal Government, 1915–1932* (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1934), *The Autobiography of Calvin Coolidge* (Cosmopolitan Book Corporation: N.Y. 1929), C. Coolidge, *Foundations of the Republic; Speeches and Addresses* (Scribner, 1926), W. S. Myers, ed., *The State Papers and other Public Writings of Herbert Hoover*, 2 vol. (Doubleday, Doran: Garden City, N.Y., 1934), and C. G. Dawes, *Notes as Vice-President, 1928–1929* (Little, Brown: Boston, 1935), and *Journal as Ambassador to Great Britain* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1939). But there are larger topics than these. The United States has during the last generation and a half experienced a revolution in its economic structure and its economic relations with the rest of the world, and it is in the study of its economic history and of the history of its foreign relations that an understanding of the problems of to-day must ultimately be sought. For an introduction to American economic history the reader has a choice of H. U. Faulkner, *American Economic History* (Harper, 1924: revd. ed., 1931) and *Economic History of the United States* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1928), E. C. Kirkland, *A History of American Economic Life* (Crofts: N.Y. 1932; revd. ed., 1939), or F. A. Shannon, *Economic History of the People of the United States* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1934, revised and re-issued in 1940 under the title of *America's Economic Growth*). The most vital problems are dealt with in more detail in *Recent Economic Changes in the United States*, Committee on Recent Economic Changes, 2 vol. (McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1929), C. A. and M. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*, vol. iii, *America in Midpassage* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1939), G. M. Stephenson, *A History of American Immigration, 1820–1924* (Ginn, 1926), R. L. Garis, *Immigration Restriction* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1927), J. Schafer, *Social History of American Agriculture* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1936), F. W. Taussig, *The Tariff History of the United States*, 8th ed. (Putnam, 1931), A. B. Hepburn, *A History of Currency in the United States*, revd. ed. (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1924), S. E. Harris, *Twenty Years of Federal Reserve Policy, including an extended discussion of the Monetary Crisis, 1927–33*, 2 vol. (Harvard University Press, 1933), S. Perlman and P. Taft, *History of Labor in the United States, 1896–1932*, being vol. iv of J. R. Commons and others, *History of Labor in the United States* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1937), L. Wolman, *The Growth of American Trade Unions, 1880–1923* (National Bureau of Economic Research: N.Y. 1924), and L. L. Lorwin, *The American Federation of Labor* (Brookings Institution: Washington, D.C., 1933).

To the recent diplomatic history of the United States a useful introduction is provided by C. R. Fish, *An Introduction to the History of American Diplomacy* (S.P.C.K. Helps for Students of History, No. 19, 1919) and by the same author's *The Pathway of Empire* (*The Chronicles of America*, ed., A. Johnson, vol. xlvi; Milford, 1919). The problems of the 'twenties are discussed in G. H. Blakeslee, *The Recent Foreign Policy of the United States; problems in American cooperation with other powers* (Abingdon Press: N.Y. 1925),

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J. W. Garner, *American Foreign Policies* (New York University Press, 1928), F. H. Simonds, *American Foreign Policy in the Post-War Years* (Johns Hopkins Press: Baltimore, 1935), D. F. Fleming, *The United States and the League of Nations* (Putnam, 1932), and D. H. Miller, *The Peace Pact of Paris; a study of the Briand-Kellogg treaty* (Putnam, 1928). Since 1928, an annual volume has been issued by the Council on Foreign Relations, first, from 1928–31, under the editorship of C. P. Howland and the title of *Survey of American Foreign Relations*, 1928 [etc.] (Milford, 1928–31), and latterly, in a rather more popular form, under various editorships and the title *The United States in World Affairs* (Harper, 1932). For the background of American policy in the Far East, the reader should go to T. Dennett, *Americans in Eastern Asia* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1922), A. W. Griswold, *The Far Eastern Diplomacy of the United States* (Harcourt, Brace: N.Y. 1938), and P. J. Treat, *Japan and the United States*, 1853–1921, revd. ed., continued to 1928 (Stanford University Press, 1928). There are studies of the Washington Conference in R. L. Buell, *The Washington Conference* (Appleton, 1922) and Y. Ichihashi, *The Washington Conference and After* (Stanford University Press, 1928). H. L. Stimson, *The Far Eastern Crisis* (Harper, 1936), is a masterly review of the events of 1931–2. The change of United States policy towards Latin American inaugurated by Wilson, and developed by Mr. Hughes and President Roosevelt, is illustrated by Garner's volume cited above, C. H. Haring, *South America looks at the United States* (Macmillan Co.: N.Y. 1928), and C. E. Hughes, *The Pathway of Peace* (Harper, 1925), and *Our Relations to the Nations of the Western Hemisphere* (Princeton University Press, 1928).

There is a *Short History of the New Deal* by L. M. Hacker (J. Crofts: N.Y., 1934). Three useful English studies are: A. Steel-Maitland, *The New America* (Macmillan, 1934), E. M. Hugh-Jones and E. A. Radice, *An American Experiment* (Milford, 1936), and A. S. J. Baster, *The Twilight of American Capitalism* (P. S. King, 1937). C. J. Hitch, *America's Economic Strength* (Oxford University Press, 1941) carries the story down to the present day.

BRITISH-AMERICAN UNDERSTANDING—THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

By C. A. STOTT, Aldenham School

THE future of civilization depends in a large measure on the promotion of international understanding; and in this British-American understanding has a large part to play. It would seem at first sight that, with a common language and literature, with a common tradition of law, popular government, and individual freedom, the two peoples should find some degree of mutual understanding not difficult to attain. But in point of fact the situation is not so simple. There are profound differences in geography, in the character and variety of the population, in the machinery of government. There is besides in each country widespread ignorance of the other, as well as much actual prejudice due to definite historical causes.[1] Nevertheless, the factors making for understanding have never been more powerful, nor its need more urgent.

Our aim then should be to do all in our power to increase and deepen this understanding, but it must be based on fact and not merely on sentiment or wishful thinking.

I propose in this article to consider the part secondary schools may play in promoting this mutual knowledge under two main aspects concerned respectively with the adolescent and the adult mind, with the pupil and the teacher.

There is a profound truth in Sir Richard Livingstone's reminder[2] that intellectual development in the young far outstrips their knowledge of life, and in his contention that a great deal of human experience in history, politics, and literature is outside the grasp of the immature mind because it is outside its experience. On the other hand the adolescent mind is accessible to enthusiasms which may crystallize into sentiments which will play an important part in moulding outlook in later life.

The practical bearing of this on educational problems in general, and on this problem in particular, is plain. In the first place we can as teachers help to build up a skeleton or scaffolding of factual information (geographical, economic, historical, and so on) which will be of great value; in the second place we can seek to kindle the interest and sympathy which are so vital. Interest is kindled from interest; and so the teacher's function is of supreme importance.

It does not fall within the scope of this article to discuss the application of these principles in detail to class-room work: but I should like to outline what I conceive to be the nature of the field and to make some tentative suggestions.

I. Aim.

To help British children to know more about America and the life of its people. Little is known generally of America and its people except through films, few of which are typical, and a few novels. New York and Hollywood, gangsters and the Wild West, loom too large. Nothing is known of the day-to-day life of ordinary people in the towns and in the country. The special number of *Picture Post* which appeared last year was very good, but it was exceptional, and was soon out of print and unprocurable.

II. Ages.

Recognized age-groups are: 11–14, 14–16, 16–19, with a good deal of overlap. Each group calls for its own material and approach. The value of pictorial presentation is valuable throughout, but especially in the younger groups.

III. Subjects and Topics.

The following list is not of course intended to be exhaustive, but to indicate material with various kinds of appeal which may be drawn on.

(*a*) *Geography:* Scenery, climate, resources; exploration, travel; communications.

(*b*) *History*, including biography.

(*c*) *Home and Social Life:* Home and houses, children, school; church; recreation; shops; money.

(*d*) *Achievements in Engineering and Science: e.g.* Panama Canal, Boulder Dam, San Francisco bridge; 200-inch telescope; railways and famous trains.

(*e*) *Architecture and other Art:* Town planning; skyscrapers and zoning laws; famous buildings; sculpture, painting, music.

(*f*) *Imaginative Literature:* Poetry (*e.g.* Benét, *John Brown's Body*); drama; fiction, especially historical and social.

(*g*) *Politics and Economics:* Politics: Constitution Federal and State Government, parties, local government. Economics: Primary industries—farming, lumbering, mining, ranching, cotton-growing; conservation work; manufactures; capital and labour; Wall Street; social security.

(*h*) *Internal Problems:* Immigration and the melting-pot; minorities, negroes. Continental nature of these problems, their origin in history, measures adopted to deal with them.

(*i*) *International Relations and Foreign Policy:* Monroe Doctrine; Hawley Smoot tariff laws; war debts; League of Nations; isolationism; 'neutrality'; lease-and-lend.

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Time marches on

but some things remain unchanged. A freshly gathered apple, for example, tastes as good to the picker whether he be a villein on the Manor of Appledorum in the Thirteenth Century, or an employé in the orchard of a modern canning company.

We need no excuse for dwelling in our history books on such fundamental things as seed-time and harvest, on the occupations followed by men and women, and on the recreations which in each age give an edge to the humdrum. But wars and kings are also history ; so are laws and constitutions ; even dates. How can we select and present the material of history for pupils of secondary school age ?

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Relations with Latin and other America. Importance of understanding the ordinary American point of view (*e.g.* in Middle West) on these and similar matters. Need for objectivity and sympathy.

(*j*) *Resemblances and Differences between U.S.A. and Britain:* Points of contact: Law, liberty, toleration; relation of citizen to State; language and literature. Points of contrast: Enormous size of country, variety of climate and range of resources, racial diversity, different constitutional pattern and its effect on practice of government.

What picture does the ordinary Englishman have of the ordinary American, and vice versa? Are these pictures like the truth? What about cartoons of 'John Bull' and 'Uncle Sam'? What impression do British and American tourists leave?

N.B.—Importance of Canada as a bridge between the two peoples, especially since the war.

The above subjects are topics rather to be drawn upon than treated exhaustively. They appeal to various ages and interests: (*a*), (*c*), (*d*) especially to the younger; (*g*), (*h*), (*i*), (*j*), except in their simpler form, to VI.

IV. Kinds of Material available for use.

(*a*) *Books.* A very pressing need is that of a reliable and up-to-date list of books bearing on the various subjects mentioned under IV, suitable for use in school—both for the class-room and the library. The list should be *selective*. It should include sufficient information about each book mentioned to give an indication of its scope and the age for which it is suitable, as well as the usual bibliographical details about date, pages, publisher, and price. A comparatively short annotated list (say 100–150 titles) of this kind is far more valuable than a long list of mere titles.

(*b*) *Newspapers.* These furnish perhaps one of the most effective points of contact. The main world news is already familiar from British papers, but is presented in American papers from a new angle.[3] On the other hand, the local (American) news is unfamiliar, but full of parallels to provincial news here. Advertisements are of never-failing interest.

(*c*) *Magazines and Periodicals.* Here, as with books, it would be helpful to have a short list of standard American weeklies and monthlies, with brief comments on their general character; it should include periodicals popular with American boys and girls (*e.g. Boys' Life*).

(*d*) *Pictures, Posters, Folders.* This is a wide field and includes railway, airway, and bus folders, posters, and local guides. Much of this material is—or was— available free. Air photographs are often impressive as, for instance, the magnificent view of New York published with *The National Geographic Magazine* some time ago. I do not know if there are any available like the fine series of infra-red views taken on the Singapore air-route which appeared in *The Times*. As recent examples of the kind of pictures which are most effective, I would mention the wonderful exhibition of 600 photographs illustrating modern Russia recently held in London.

(*e*) *Stamps.* The stamps of the United States have always reflected the story of the country. Apart from the familiar heads of Presidents, sets have been issued illustrating or celebrating events in American history, *e.g.* the Columbus Set of 1892. A school collection properly kept and written-up would provide interesting light on the history from a new angle.

(*f*) *Films.* Here perhaps we have the greatest possibilities. Films can be made to illustrate vividly many of the subjects under III. But the films should not be snippets, and each should have a definite purpose and centre of interest. Of especial value would be a comprehensive series of films on *Geography*—especially types of scenery, famous places, summer and winter scenes, various occupations and trades. Some should be taken from train, motor, or boat, *e.g.* approach to New York; the Rockies; Yosemite; the Mississippi. Similarly on *Social Life*—street scenes; shopping; school. A film could be made of a day in the life of an American boy or girl.[4] *Historical* films depend for their value on the quality of their treatment.

(*g*) *Gramophone Records.* These can illustrate (i) representative American speech and pronunciation; (ii) famous oratory, *e.g.* Lincoln's Gettysburg speech; (iii) music (*e.g.* Appalachian folk-sons, negro spirituals).

(*h*) *Maps.* Not only general maps of U.S.A. (including geological) but large-scale maps of typical small town and village. Such a map could be exhibited in conjunction with a corresponding English map. It would be specially effective if either map were illustrated with a film of the district it covers.

Many interesting maps are issued with *The National Geographic Magazine*.

(*i*) *Living Diagrams.* These could illustrate graphically such subjects as the growth of the U.S.A. from the first colonization to the present day; origins of population, and changes decade by decade; imports and exports; trade routes.

V. Some Suggestions as to Machinery.

To carry out such a scheme two kinds of organization are necessary:

(*a*) A central library, to act as storehouse of material (including pictures, records, films), as clearing-house of information, as place of research (like, for instance, the Warburg Institute, which specializes in material illustrating the influence of the Ancient World; or the Courtauld Institute). From this comprehensive collection loans could be made to schools and lectures arranged; and the collection would be available for consultation.

Perhaps such a collection might be developed under the aegis of an existing organization, such as the English-Speaking Union. Alternatively, it might be a new foundation.

(*b*) Collections built up by individual schools themselves, of books, pictures, papers. This material can be kept in the school library, and displays made from it from time to time; and of course its contents are always available for use in class.

Various ways suggest themselves of stimulating interest in schools.

1. A practical scheme of contact and co-operation between British and American schools could take the form of a sort of mutual adoption of pairs of schools, each corresponding with the other and each keeping the other supplied with some of the kinds of material referred to above, exchanging newspapers, magazines, pictures, and perhaps films. In this way the difficulty of procuring this kind of material would be surmounted.

2. A small group or society might be formed in the school, perhaps as a section of a political society, to study current events as they affect America.

Notes: 1. The suggestions made under III, IV, and V are planned to help British children to know more about everyday and historical America. They would naturally be balanced by corresponding arrangements in America for making known everyday and historical Britain. Similar schemes could be organized with the members of the British Commonwealth and, after the war, with other countries.

2. It is important that none of this should be, or in any way resemble, propaganda. The chief aim is the forming of unofficial links based on more knowledge and understanding, especially at the most impressionable ages.

3. It is not to be supposed that any single school will make use of all the kinds of material or methods suggested; they are given as samples of a variety of possible approaches.

I now turn to the second main topic of this article, the part the teacher may play.

It is clear that contact at a distance such as has been already described can go only a certain way towards building up understanding; it needs to be supplemented and inspired with a closer relationship.

It may be possible after the war to organize visits of

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school parties; but they can never take place on a large scale, and too much must not be expected of them.[5] But there is a very great deal to be said for a far wider measure of interchange of *teachers*. As will be explained later, however, I do not mean by this a mere exchange of teaching posts and duties.

The teacher is in direct contact with the child, and is the main channel through which, in school, the stream of influences which are a part of what we call education is transmitted to the child; and among these influences the teacher's own personality and outlook play no inconsiderable part. It is not possible to bring the whole school, or even a large part of it, into direct contact with American life, but it is possible to do this with the teacher. Moreover, as an adult, he is in a position to gain far more from the experience than an adolescent; and, *if he is the right man*, the school on his return will indirectly, but none the less really, participate in his experience.

I will deal with the kind of exchange I have in mind under three heads:

I. Object and Character.

The main object is to give the teacher an opportunity to see something of America, and to make contact with American people. What is needed is a system of long visits (*e.g.* a year) which would allow of time to get to know something of America *extensively* (by travel), and *intensively* (by staying long enough in some single town or district to get to know it and to make friends there). Part of this time might well include teaching work in an American school, but I think it would be a mistake to make it so entirely.

Further, the teacher should be financially independent of private hospitality. Americans are famous for their hospitality; and this has contributed largely to the great work done by the English-Speaking Union. But many families of the very type we are most anxious to meet could not afford to offer free hospitality (and, of course, the same applies here).

Lastly, it is to be hoped that a great many of these visits would be paid to those parts of the United States, such as the Middle West, of which British people know least, and where Britain is least understood.

II. Selection.

It is human nature to judge a group by its samples. It is therefore of the first importance that men and women of the right type should be chosen, as they will be in a sense unofficial ambassadors. Three kinds of qualities, it seems to me, are specially to be looked for: *spiritual* (for want of a better term)—sincerity, imagination, modesty; *intellectual*—openness of mind, and lively interest; *social*—the power of mixing well and making friends. In general the attitude will be especially that of one who has come to learn rather than to teach, but yet who is willing, as occasion arises, to set out an alternative point of view. The mortal sins are superiority and self-assertiveness.

As for subjects, teachers of English, history, or geography would seem to have a good claim to consideration; but this should not exclude teachers of other subjects.

III. Finance and Organization.

For such a system to be effective it should be applied on a considerable scale. If 100 men and women teachers went in a year, and if we took about £600 as the average sum necessary (on the pre-war exchange), the cost would be about £60,000 a year; or, supposing a term's teaching were done during the visit, this sum might be reduced by a fifth. Obviously this is out of the question for any private organization. The alternative is a Government grant. This involves, as things are, some thorny problems of exchange; but, should the value of such a scheme be admitted, and should a similar scheme be established for the visit of American teachers to Britain, I suggest that the British teachers should be invited and financed by the American Government, the Americans by the British Government. In this way the difficulties of transference of exchange would be surmounted, while there would be, I feel, psychological value in the fact that British teachers went there, not as emissaries (as it were) of the British Government, but as guests of the American Government, and vice versa.

If such a system operated for 10 years, it would give an opportunity for nearly half the secondary schools in this country to benefit.

[1] See J. T. Adams' *An American looks at the British Empire* (Oxford University Press. 6d.).

[2] In *The Future in Education*. He makes this fact the basis of his moving plea for the development of a national system of adult education.

[3] I organized at Aldenham last summer a display of newspapers of several countries, illustrating international affairs 1938-1940. In several cases I was able to put side by side American, English, and sometimes French papers of the same date, *e.g.* during the battle of Flanders. Comparisons were most interesting.

[4] During the last year or so two boys at Aldenham produced a most interesting documentary film of the school life, from getting up in the morning to going to bed at night, and covering most school activities; and a copy is being kept in the library with other material illustrating the life of the school.

[5] Besides, travel *in itself* does not promote understanding. A very happy precedent, however, for the formation of friendships has been the voluntary evacuation last year of individual children as the guests of American families.

AMERICAN HISTORY IN OUR SCHOOLS

By F. S. MARVIN

IT is apparent to any one who opens a history book used in an English school that the United States has hardly any place in it. It would be safe to say that almost the only American names which would be known to an average English scholar are Washington and Lincoln, and almost the only events, the American war of independence and the civil war 'about slavery.' One would be lucky in any elementary or secondary school to have given by the scholars a fairly reasonable account of these two. Yet we are approaching a time when—if things go well with us—it will be due to the United States in the last resort that civilization is saved from Hitler. We think ourselves enlightened if our scholars on leaving school have a sketch of European history in their heads—with—let us say—Washington, Lincoln, and—in the later books—Woodrow Wilson. Americans know far more about us; indeed they take a more world-wide view of history than probably any other nation.

Owing to the war, a change is taking place in this, as in many other things, and it may be useful to consider for a moment or two both the difficulties of the problem and the right way to tackle it.

In the first place one must recognize that the field of history is immense. No child can learn even an outline of the history of all the countries in the world. There must be severe selection, and the history of America has certain features upon which it is not necessary to dwell. There is so much party squabbling; there are so many changes in the head of the State. It also comes as a sequel to the chief events in our own and European history, and thus takes but a small place in the general histories which are now being more commonly used in our schools. Its greatness is in the present and the future. The history books of the next generation will have plenty to say about it. Yet it would be well if now we acquainted ourselves better with

(Continued on page 486)

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At least one clear fact has emerged from the welter of war—that the future peace and happiness of the world depend upon the closest possible union between the British Empire and the United States. Real union can be based only on genuine mutual understanding and sympathy. Lip service will avail us little. The future of the world lies in the hands of the *children* of this country and the United States. Yet how deplorably little they really know of each other! It is the positive and urgent duty of every educationist in Britain to combat this ignorance, and to familiarise their pupils with the history, development, social and economic conditions and, above all, with the psychology of U.S.A. citizens.

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the main features of the American past and how it comes about that the United States—less than two hundred years old—has already become the most powerful nation on earth. We think about her too much in the light of the vulgar and frivolous films with which she fills our cinemas and which we are foolish enough to devour.

What can be done to make history truer in this respect and clear away the clouds which obscure their greatness?

There is a capital book called the *Household History of the United States*, by Eggleston (published by Appleton & Co.), much used it seems both in households and schools in that country: also a useful short *History of America* by J. E. Tyler. The 'Household Book' is full of points which we should wish to bring out in a general book of our own. But two points should be remembered: (1) That it would be impossible to bring in all American history in our schools and (2) That, while we have been too narrow in the past, yet our history contains the foundations of growth and freedom for all of us. It is right that we should make that amply clear both for ourselves and for our American cousins. They have generally taken great pains to acknowledge it. In a very near future we shall all be knit more closely with them than we have ever been before. Now is the time to enlarge our knowledge of what they have done since they broke away from us.

In the first place, it should be made clear that the United States—far more than South America—is part of the western drive for empire and civilization, which brought the Teutons into Germany and the Slavs into Poland. This movement has been continuous since the break-up of the Roman Empire. With us and our neighbours in France and Holland it took its way across the Atlantic, while the mass of the Russians and the Tartars have been spreading eastwards over central Asia. In any history course, therefore, great stress should be laid on the work of explorers and settlers like Columbus and Cabot and Raleigh. Their work was far more important than the squabbles of Henry VIII with the Pope, or the vagaries of Elizabeth with Leicester and Essex. Yet in our ordinary history books the latter events are described in detail, while perhaps a short paragraph is allotted to the work Raleigh started in Virginia. The greatest work accomplished by the United States is the gradual covering westwards of the northern continent, and the almost incredible bravery and suffering with which it was accomplished. It began in Queen Elizabeth's reign with Raleigh's three attempts in Virginia. It was followed by the succession of Puritans who first came with *The Mayflower*, and was completed in the two hundred years after by sturdy settlers who faced every kind of hardship until the continent was full. It is a most exciting and inspiring story. A 'starvation time' leading in one horrible incident to actual cannibalism; fights—and friendship—with the Indians, and the exploration of every promising river or creek, death by hundreds, and the final survival of a remnant—all acknowledging their allegiance to the old country and being constantly revived and commanded by brave men who set out from England.

Now, this story in any history, whether of England or of Europe or of the world, should find a large place and it is of the utmost interest to juvenile readers. Yet at present we hardly mention it.

The next great episode in the history of the United States is the war with England and their final severance from the mother land. This receives more attention in our books because it is closely connected with the crassness of one of our most foolish kings. It should be represented rather as a civil war leading in the end to the foundation of our Second Empire and to the spread of freedom throughout our domains. All the best men in public life both in England and in the States ardently desired that the link should be preserved. This again is not brought out in the ordinary text-books of history on which our people have been so sparsely fed.

The next tremendous incident in American history, which should find more space than it does in our books, is the long struggle for the abolition of slavery. American history turns on it almost from the beginning of the nineteenth century. We notice it as a rule only when the disputants come to blows and Lincoln appears. It should certainly be more fully treated in even the shortest of our books or courses, for not only was the question of slavery settled, which we in England had done just after the battle of Trafalgar, but also for the United States it decided that the country should remain one and thus become the leading force in the world. It was on that ground that Lincoln fought and died, and we should gratefully bear him in our minds as we are now fighting the battle for the freedom of the world.

After the civil war in the States, her history becomes less interesting and important for English readers until she comes into the world scene in 1917. We do not need to learn of the various Presidents who had the task of settling the conquered southern States. These were the carpet-baggers, who for a time ruled and oppressed their conquered foes. There was the question of settling the freed negroes without giving them—what they still do not possess—the full rights of voting and governing side by side with their old white masters. These are matters of internal policy in America which will gradually right themselves. The most serious matter for us—as was proved in the last war—was the gradual complication of the American constitution, which, while it drew its law and original ideas from the mother land, has become faulty and cumbrous to a point which we can hardly understand, though we suffered deeply from it in the next great episode which must appear in all our general history books, even in those which profess to talk only about England.

This episode was the winning of the last war and the settlement which followed it. Parties are so hotly opposed in America, and the President himself so entangled by precedent and so anxious in his public speech and action to represent as far as possible the whole people, that in the war of 1914–18 America did not appear till 1917 and, far more serious, after the victory was won, did not sign the peace and left the gravest post-war problems on our hands. It may be said that this was largely due to the personal weaknesses of Woodrow Wilson, but it must not be forgotten that, during and after his work at Versailles, a violent campaign was conducted all over the States which prevented the signature of the Treaty by them and deprived France and the League of Nation States of their strongest ally. No. One must honestly say that in America a good and great nation is struggling in the toils of a faulty system of democracy which might strangle her life out of her, were she not essentially sound.

In writing her history, or indeed the history of any people, one is bound to look on the brightest side. A great thing has been accomplished on earth, and we should remember and do honour to the generations of brave and able men who have toiled to produce it. It should be made prominent in any book or any part of a book which we are contemplating for English readers that the pioneers of the seventeenth century, both those who fought the Indians and those who read the Bible in New England, were in bravery, enterprise, and religion far above the mass of their fellow-Englishmen whom they left behind. Much of this bravery and a great deal of this religion has survived, and has permeated the masses who followed them in the nineteenth century. For, especially after the troubles and famine in Ireland in the middle of the century, a stream of Irish flowed West and they have been followed by millions from every country in Europe. President Roosevelt has to deal with tens of millions of Germans, Italians, Irish, and a hundred other nationalities only partly assimilated to the spirit of the States. They do become assimilated in a marvellous way, but they are perfectly free to speak

(*Continued on page* 488)

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their own tongue, publish their own newspaper, and practise their own religion. It is the starkest possible contrast to the Nazi system which both we and the Americans have sworn to put down. This would be the last appearance of the United States in a contemporary history book, but it will not be the last in that of our children.

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AN EDUCATED DEMOCRACY?

By G. T. HANKIN, formerly one of H.M. Inspectors

IS the United States of America an educated democracy? Or, rather, are the component States educated democracies? The best source for statistics is the 1938 Report of the Advisory Committee on Education. From these one may obtain a partial, tentative, and contradictory answer to the question.

In 1930 there were 810,000 children between the ages of 7 and 13 who did not go to school. Over thirty-six million of to-day's adult population (seventy-five million) did not finish the elementary school course. "At least three million are completely illiterate." There are 4,300,000 resident aliens whose education, in the broader sense of the word, is in some measure problematical.

These figures are taken from the chapter of the Report dealing with educational services for adults. The following facts, from other sections, redress the balance.

Elementary school service is universally available to-day. In 1890 only 3·8 per cent of the number of young people, 14 to 17 years of age, were enrolled in public high schools. That figure has now risen to 60 per cent, with roughly six million boys and girls in 25,000 schools, staffed by 230,000 teachers. In 1933–1934, 1,055,360 regular resident students were taught by 89,914 faculty members in 1,418 institutions. First degrees were awarded to 136,156 graduates, and graduate degrees were awarded to an additional 21,079.

To form any reasoned opinion of the type of education provided would be a gigantic task. But a few figures will show, at any rate to an administrator, the enormous variations between the forty-eight States—to ignore the 126,000 separate educational authorities within them. The amount expended annually per pupil averaged seventy-four dollars, but varied from one hundred and thirty-four dollars to twenty-four dollars. The length of the school year, average one hundred and seventy-two days, varied from under 140 to over 180. The average compensation of teachers, supervisors, and principals in elementary and secondary schools varied in 1935–1936 from under six hundred dollars in three States to over eighteen hundred in three others.

There is no national minimum standard in accommodation, in length of school life, in training of teachers, in salaries of teachers. There is, in fact, no American system of education.

Nevertheless, among the large highly industrialized countries, the United States probably approximates most closely to, or, better, is least distant from, the ideal of an 'educated democracy'. The inequalities are much more pronounced than, for example, in Britain, a country which strangely enough is accused of concentrating on the production of leaders. On the other hand, the proportion of those receiving education other than elementary, and the rapid increase in that proportion is even more remarkable than in Britain. Of the five million Trade Unionists in the U.S.A. a very considerable percentage, particularly among the younger members, will have attended high school. Similarly, college and university men are found in every walk of life.

The great question remains, "What is an 'educated democracy'? What are the tests?" To this observer, at any rate, the American people have progressed some distance along the road to 'educated democracy'. Individually, American working men and women with whom one comes into contact, either in their work or their recreations, are notably efficient, clean, polite, kindly, healthy-minded, able to enjoy leisure sensibly. Their taste in radio is not so intellectually high as might be expected, notably in their thirst for miscellaneous unrelated scraps of information, provided in the form of 'quiz' competitions. (Of course, sponsored radio programmes are arranged after most scientific investigation of listeners' preferences at each hour of each day.) On the other hand, the radio debates and some of the music demand an intelligent and educated audience.

In as far as education trains for world and national citizenship, even such rough generalizations as the preceding are dangerous. The changes in public opinion during the last two years with regard to world affairs have been a fascinating study. But an Englishman is obviously biased on this question. His opinion that emotion has been the guiding force rather than reason may be due to his inability to see any validity in the isolationist arguments. But internal politics, where he is probably more impartial, seem to consist of personal recriminations rather than reasoned discussion. The attacks on the New Deal recall the attitude in Britain towards Lloyd George and the Insurance Act thirty years ago. The Trade Union position is a mystery. If Trade Unions are sinks of corruption, centres of graft and racketeering, why don't their educated members reform them? If they are honestly and reasonably engaged in watching over the interests of their members, why should their opponents shower such abuse upon them?

The widespread deep-rooted fear of Communism is a curious phenomenon. No one seems to feel that education will save a democracy from plunging, against its own interests, into undesirable political or economic experiments.

Is it possible to trace any connexion between the intellectual and emotional attitudes of the adult and the type of education he or she has received? It is tempting to do so, in spite of incomplete knowledge and personal predilections. To this observer, American education, as he has seen it in high schools, as he has read of it, as he has talked of it with teachers and others, seems very likely to produce the men and women of the type he has met in the adult world, efficient, adaptable, polite, but swayed by emotion rather than reason.

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In school the individual boy or girl is not only considered of enormous importance—as, of course, he is—but also is frequently told so, directly or indirectly. He achieves a variety of skills and interests—many of them very valuable. But he is constantly being 'fussed over' as an individual, in the class-room, in the school magazine, on the playing-field, in the press, even over the radio. Children seem to be encouraged not only to have opinions of their own, but also to consider these opinions based, at their age, largely on emotion, as of equal value with those founded on experience, knowledge, and careful reasoning.

The obvious need for the moment in the schools would seem to be for more mental discipline, more training of the mind to cope with the forces that are constantly playing on their emotions the film, the press, and the radio.

As a whole America seems to be satisfied with the education her children are receiving, but serious thinkers are demanding a restatement of the whole philosophy of education, for national and international reasons. A certain general uneasiness is also apparent in the desire for more training in citizenship and, in certain circles, for more religious instruction. In other words, character training is felt to be deficient.

The leaders of thought are, of course, abundantly justified in their demands. The plain man is almost saying the same thing when he looks round, even his own country, and asks for character training—not knowing that is the most difficult problem in education. Teachers know that in the past character training has been used as a cloak for inefficient instruction—as though intellectual discipline was not a vital part of character training. They know also that mere exhortation has little effect on the adolescent. But do they—any more than does the public—always consider how the minor points of school organization may affect formation of the character? To take an example from the football field, whence comes much useful financial support. To allow substitutes to fill the places of tired or injured players detracts from the character-forming value of the game. Boys ought to learn to 'carry on', when they are tired or bruised. Again 'cheer-leading' encourages onlookers in the stands to think they are taking an active share in the game. To applaud a cause is not the same thing as to work for it—a badly needed lesson. And yet we talk of team games as character forming!

More mental training, changes in the rules of football, sound indeed trivial when humanity is locked in a death-struggle, when we are beginning to think of planning a new and better world. They are tokens. They imply a regrading of values, a very serious reorientation, when translated into terms of teaching method, curricula, and extra class-room activities.

When the war comes to its appointed end, when that post-war testing time comes upon us, world leaders will be needed, no less in Education than in Politics and Economics. In that sphere Americans will be the natural protagonists, in virtue of their country's progress towards an 'educated democracy', a progress notable for untrammelled thinking, bold experiments, and lofty ideals.

THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE AMERICAS

By J. H. STEMBRIDGE, Author of *The World-Wide Geographies*, *The New Oxford Geographies*, etc.

WITHIN the compass of a short article it is impossible to do more than outline the geography of the Americas. We can only select some outstanding features and attempt to indicate their influence on human development.

In shape, compactness, and build the two continents show striking resemblances. Except in the north and south, the west coast of the Americas is singularly unindented. As regards the eastern seaboard, North America is more fortunate than the smaller continent; for, from the Gulf of St. Lawrence south to Chesapeake Bay, numerous openings give access to the interior, and provide abundant ocean contacts. Likewise the West Indies are well furnished with good natural harbours, though the Caribbean coast-lands of Mexico and Central America are poorly provided, and at most ports goods are transported between shore and ship by means of lighters—as, too, they are along the west coast of South America.

The build of North and South America is relatively simple. In each continent we find three major divisions—a lofty Western Mountain System, Central Plains, and Eastern Highlands. The Western Cordilleras or Rocky Mountain System of North America, like the Andes of South America, is a barrier to oceanic influences and communications, isolating a narrow Pacific coastal strip from the rest of the continent. In North America the Central Plains stretch from the Arctic to the Gulf of Mexico. In South America the continuity of the Plains is broken, and they consist of three lowlands that extend from the Atlantic into the basins of the Orinoco, the Amazon, and the rivers draining into the Plate estuary.

In both continents much denuded Eastern Highlands are divided into two masses by a great eastward flowing river. In North America the St. Lawrence separates the Labrador Highlands (part of the Canadian Shield) from the Appalachians: in South America the Amazon divides the Guiana Highlands from the Brazilian Highlands.

To the three major physical divisions of North America must be added the Canadian (or Precambrian) Shield, which has no counterpart in South America. This extremely rugged and undulating area differs little in elevation from the adjacent portions of the Central Plains; but it forms a distinct region, owing to its structure and resultant human activities. The Shield, which may be regarded as the core of North America, extends in the shape of a huge V round Hudson Bay, stretching to the south of Lake Superior, and sending a westward arm almost to the Mackenzie River. It covers slightly more than half of Canada and approximately a fifth of North America. It has an average elevation of 1,500 feet, though it is considerably lower around Hudson Bay, and higher in the Labrador Highlands, where it rises to some 3,000 feet. The bedrock stands out as low rounded hills which bulge for several hundred feet above the general level. The soil consists mainly of glacial drift. Banks of drift have dammed up the hollows, where water has collected forming lakes which are linked by short swift streams, whose falls are an actual or potential source of power. Owing to the irregularities of the rock surface, and the uneven distribution of the drift, the drainage is ill-defined and only the larger rivers—occupying valleys of pre-glacial formation—have uniform valleys. In many regions water predominates: between the Great Slave and the Great Bear Lakes, for instance, 75 per cent of the surface consists of lakes and rivers. It must not, however, be supposed that the Canadian Shield is almost devoid of soil, for in some parts the glacial drift is thick, and in others layers of clay and sand have been deposited on the beds of former lakes. Notable among such areas is the clay belt of Northern Ontario and Quebec Province, which is an important agricultural district.

But outside such occasional areas the wealth of the Shield lies in its water power, its forests, and above all in its minerals, for the old hard crystalline rocks are rich in copper, gold, nickel, silver, pitch-blende (radium bearing), and other ores. A region such as the Shield, infused with thousands of lakes, ice-bound and snow-clad for many months in the year, nearly half covered with forests, and

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very scantily peopled, would not have been developed except for its minerals. Until recently the canoe and the steamer in summer, and the dog team in winter, provided the chief means of travel. But now the aeroplane is widely used, and it is no exaggeration to say that without it this vast area would not yet have been opened up.

It is well known that the United States and Canada have the finest commercial air service in the world, and that they possess more than half the railway mileage. The United States alone has 260,000 miles of track, and Canada 48,000 miles. The major traffic lines in both countries run from east to west, that is across the mountain ranges of North America. But despite their greater breadth the Rockies are more easily crossed than the Andes, which owing to their greater height and lack of easy passes are a far more formidable barrier to communications than their North American counterpart. Thus, whereas five trans-continental railways link the Atlantic and Pacific ports of Canada and the United States, only two lines cross the Andes—two in a stretch of country measuring some 5,000 miles from north to south. In fact Argentina is the only country in South America with a really adequate railway system, most of its 26,000 miles of lines radiating from Buenos Aires across the level farmlands of the Pampas.

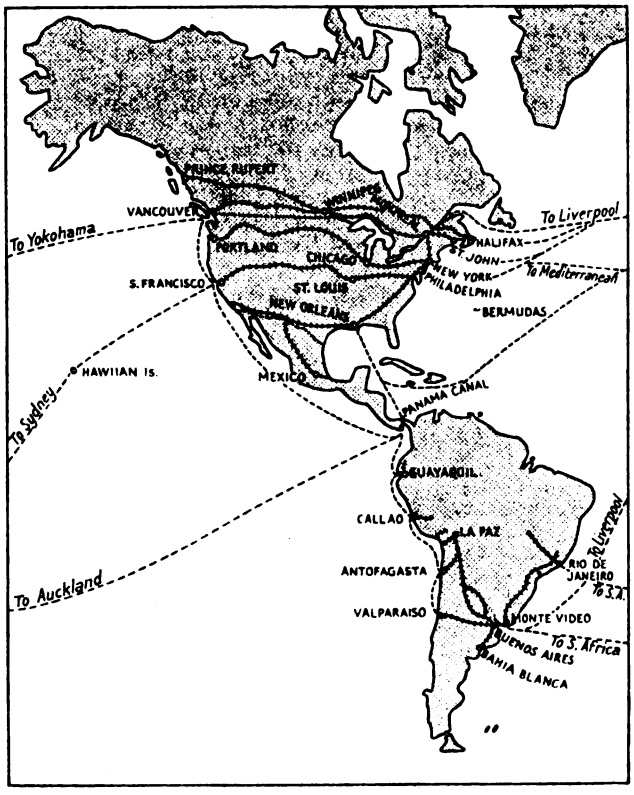
Both North and South America have an excellent system of inland waterways. In the latter continent the rivers furnish the natural means of travel in many regions. The Magdalena is the chief highway of Colombia; the lower Orinoco of south-east Venezuela; the Plate is navigable for ocean steamers as far as Rosario, and the Parana, the Paraguay, and the Uruguay by smaller steamers for 1,000 miles above Buenos Aires. Large ocean steamers can ascend the Amazon for 1,000 miles; vessels of moderate draught for another 1,300 miles. But, despite its size, the Amazon cannot compare with the St. Lawrence–Great Lakes, the chief inland waterway in the world; for, while the former serves one of the most sparsely peopled regions, the latter serves one of the leading industrial areas in the world. Yet, apart from the St. Lawrence–Great Lakes, no great use is made of the North American rivers for transport purposes, and their chief value lies in the fact that they furnish power.

The water-power resources of Canada and the United States are unsurpassed by those of any other individual country. The use of hydro-electric power halves the cost of manufacture, and many of the industrial undertakings in the Dominion and its neighbour could not be profitably worked without the cheap power obtained by harnessing falls, such as Niagara, and rivers, such as the Colorado and the Columbia.

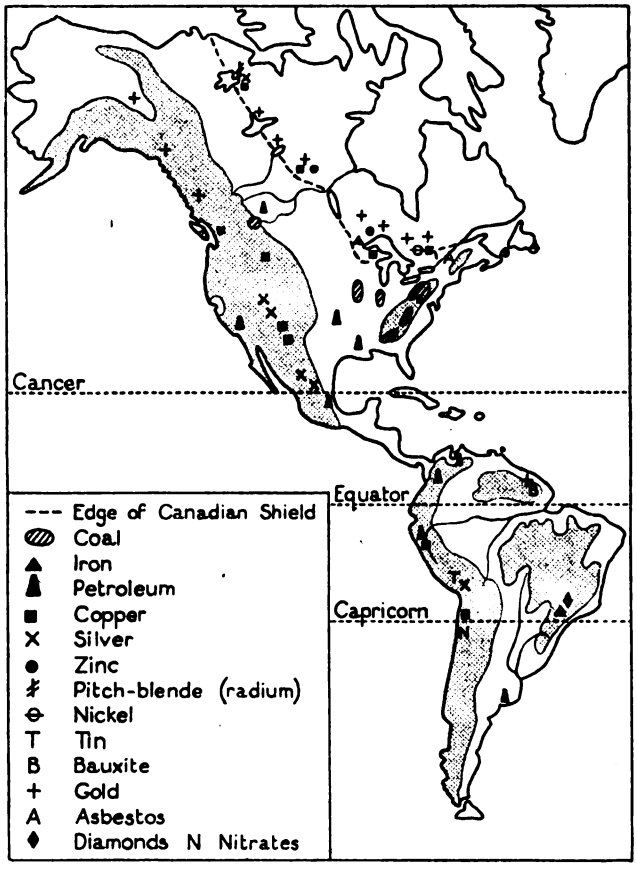
Of all geographical factors which influence man's activities, climate is the most important; and, as regards climate, rainfall even more than temperature determines the vegetation, and, to a great extent, also determines where and how people live. It is in their climate that North and South America show the greatest differences. The distinction is even more marked if it be drawn between Canada and the United States on the one side, and Latin America on the other, for, whereas the bulk of the former region lies in cold or temperate latitudes, the bulk of the latter is situated in tropical latitudes. The interior of North America has a continental climate: the summers

PERCENTAGE OF WORLD PRODUCTION

	U.S.A. and Canada		*Latin America*	
Coal ..	U.S.A.	34	..	
Iron ..	U.S.A.	40	..	
Petroleum ..	U.S.A.	60	All countries	15
Copper ..	U.S.A. (32): Canada (10)	42	Chile	21
Nickel ..	Canada	90	..	
Tin ..	U.S.A.	10	Bolivia	17
Bauxite ..	U.S.A.	10	Guianas	20
Gold ..	U.S.A. (12): Canada (10)	22	All countries	6
Silver ..	U.S.A.	27	Mexico	31



MAIN TRANSPORT ROUTES



DISTRIBUTION OF MINERALS

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are warm even in the north, but in winter the north of the continent, east of the Rockies, is ice-bound. On the other hand, no large area in Latin America is ice-bound, while the lowlands of Central America, the West Indies, and tropical South America have uniformly high temperatures throughout the year, and heavy rainfall for varying periods.

If luxuriant vegetation determined progress, then South America would be one of the most fortunate of continents. But great climatic extremes whether of heat or cold, of excessive rain or prolonged drought, retard the progress of a region. As regards essential foodstuffs, vegetable products, and minerals, North America is far richer than Latin America. The United States alone produces more than half the world's maize and a somewhat similar proportion of cotton, more than 25 per cent of the meat, and, with Canada, over 30 per cent of the butter, and 20 per cent of the wheat. Of these commodities Latin America accounts for only 6 per cent of the wheat, 7 per cent of the cotton, and 12 per cent of the meat, though on the other hand more than 30 per cent of the world's cane-sugar and nearly 90 per cent of the coffee comes from this area.

No continent is richer in mineral wealth than North America. The United States leads the world in her output of those strategical materials—coal, iron, copper, and petroleum—which are the bases of modern industry. She also takes first place in her production of lead and zinc, and ranks high in her output of bauxite, silver, and tungsten, which is used to give additional hardness to steel. The bulk of the world's supplies of nickel, asbestos, and radium are obtained from Canada, as well as 10 per cent of the copper, and a similar proportion of the lead and gold.

How does Latin America compare with her more important sister continent as regards mineral production? She produces 15 per cent of the world's petroleum, which is obtained mainly from Venezuela and Mexico, while the Andean region is rich in copper, tin, and silver, as well as in nitrates won from the Atacama Desert. There are extensive deposits of bauxite, the ore of aluminium, in British Guiana and Dutch Guiana. On the other hand, coal is scarce and of a low grade, and iron-ore but little developed.

Normally, Britain obtains approximately 30 per cent of her total imports from the Americas, upon which she depends especially for foodstuffs such as wheat and meat, and strategical materials such as cotton, petroleum, and nickel.

The United States is the greatest industrial nation in the world. The chief industrial area lies in the north-east, where its presence is due partly to the presence of a great coalfield, and partly to the proximity of the Atlantic seaboard and the Great Lakes. More than half the people in the United States live in this region, while 60 per cent of the inhabitants of Canada are found in the adjacent St. Lawrence Lowlands, its main industrial area.

In both the United States and Canada secondary and primary production are well balanced. Not so in Latin America, which is essentially a primary-producing region. This economic fact has important political results, for the defence of Latin America against a powerful aggressor rests chiefly on the United States, which alone possesses the necessary economic and industrial resources.

There is a big demand for the products of tropical Latin America in the United States, but oil from Venezuela and Mexico, grain and meat from Argentina and Uruguay, which compete with U.S.A. products, are, in normal times, marketed in the United Kingdom and Continental Europe (excluding the U.S.S.R.). If, therefore, Germany were to obtain permanent control of Europe, she would be in a position to force commercial agreements on a number of Latin Republics, and to use these agreements (as in Europe) for political and military penetration.

More dangerous than immediate German attack is German and, to a lesser extent, Italian infiltration into Latin America. There are in many of the Republics large colonies of Germans, who have preserved their own language, schools, and culture, and are impregnated with Nazi ideas. These people have considerable influence. They are, for example, in a strong position as regards air-transport. At the outbreak of the present war, out of some 45,000 miles of air lines 20,000 miles were controlled by German and Italian companies. The planes were often flown by German military pilots and the lines served as 'arteries of totalitarian propaganda and espionage'.

It was not, therefore, surprising that, in August 1940, the United States and Canada established a Joint Defence Board to coordinate the defence of the Western Hemisphere, and to aid Britain. For a similar reason the United States acquired, in September 1940, the right to lease naval and air bases from Britain. These Atlantic bases, together with existing ones belonging to the United States, Britain, and Canada form a crescent of defence stretching from Newfoundland through Bermuda and the West Indies, to British Guiana.

Newfoundland stands sentinel over the northern approach to Canada and the United States. Bermuda, only a few hours' flight from Halifax (N.S.), New York, and other coastal cities, is the defensive pivot of the eastern seaboard. The West Indian bases guard the Atlantic approaches to the Panama Canal, which is of such vital importance to the United States.

When in April 1941 the United States took Greenland under her protection, and when in July of this year she landed naval forces in Iceland, she further strengthened the defence of the Western Hemisphere, and aided the flow of munitions and other essential commodities to Britain, the outpost of that hemisphere against German aggression.

EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN THE CANADIAN ARMY

By J. B. BICKERSTETH, M.C. (Warden of Hart House), Personal Adviser and Assistant (Education) to the G.O.C. Canadian Corps

WELFARE work for the Canadian Forces is performed by four voluntary organizations, and shortly after the outbreak of war one of these, the Canadian Legion, was entrusted by the Canadian Government with the task of organizing and administering an educational programme for the Canadian Army whether in the Dominion or overseas. The Legion did magnificent work during the winter of 1939–40 in preparing a number of correspondence courses and in unifying the requirements of a complicated educational system resulting from nine separate provincial departments of Education.

The first Canadian Contingent reached England in December, 1939, and January, 1940, but rigorous training in the spring and constant moves during the summer made it difficult to put any educational programme into operation. In September, 1940, however, Lieut.-Gen. A. G. L. McNaughton, G.O.C. Canadian Corps, decided that with the long winter evenings in prospect the time had come to act. The writer was asked to make a survey of what could best be done, and early in October, 1940, presented his report. There were and still are many difficulties. The greatly increased number of Canadian troops in the United Kingdom, the extensive billeting area, the black-out, the demands of military training—all these remain real problems. Moreover, it has been necessary to build up a staff as the work developed, there being no organization similar to the Army Educational Corps in the English Army. It was mid-November before Dr. A. E. Chatwin, who had been appointed Director of Educational Services (Overseas),

(Continued on page 494)

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TECHNICAL EDUCATION

The following articles by Dr. A. H. STUART, Headmaster, Day Technical School, Hackney Technical Institute, have appeared in THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION:

THE NATIONAL CERTIFICATE IN WAR TIME AND AFTER, June, 1941.

BOOKS FOR THE WAR EFFORT, June, 1941.

APPRENTICESHIP IN POST-WAR DEVELOPMENT, August, 1941.

BOOKS FOR THE AIR-MINDED—AND OTHERS, October, 1941.

The Editor hopes soon to publish the two following articles by Dr. Stuart:

THE JUNIOR TECHNICAL SCHOOL: ITS PLACE IN OUR EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

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THE INDIAN PUBLIC SCHOOL. V. The Training of the Body. By H. G. Freund, M.D.

THE INDIAN PUBLIC SCHOOL. VI. Training for Leisure. By T. L. H. Smith-Pearse, M.A., I.E.S.

MODELLING IN PLASTIC MATERIAL. By Amba Prasad Srivastava.

THE DETERIORATION IN WRITTEN AND SPOKEN ENGLISH. By N. S. Linga Sastry, M.Sc., B.T.

ENGLISH TEACHING AT THE ELEMENTARY STAGE. By K. A. Haye, M.A., B.T.

THE LIBRARY-CLASS. By Ch. L. Sastri, M.A., B.Ed.

THE HISTORY LESSON IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL. By W. M. Ryburn, M.A.

NEW MACHINERY NEEDS NEW MEN. By Miriam Young.

CORRESPONDENCE. BOOK REVIEWS.

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arrived and under his direction steady progress has been made.

The correspondence courses, specially compiled for the Canadian Legion by experts in Canada, cover pre-high school and first-year, second-year and third-year high school, as well as practical trades and commercial subjects; and a soldier, who passes the examinations incorporated in the four text-booklets of which each course consists, receives credit in Canada. Many of these courses have been supplemented by classes, and in one of the divisions " General Education " classes based on the text-booklets in mathematics, English, science, and social studies are being developed and will fill a real need. Classes in the practical trades have been arranged in the technical colleges of the neighbouring towns, and, at week ends when the accommodation in the already over-crowded buildings is usually available and the soldiers are free, hundreds of men can be found usefully and happily engaged in diesel, automotive engineering, welding, plastering, sheet metal work, carpentry, plumbing, and the like. Nothing but the most cheerful and efficient co-operation has been received from directors of education, headmasters of high schools, principals of technical colleges, and the teachers themselves.

The correspondence courses provided by the War Office are also being used, and Major-General H. Willans and Mr. F. W. D. Bendall with their respective staffs are giving the Canadian troops every assistance in their power. Arrangements have also been made with a number of commercial firms whereby their courses are made available to Canadian soldiers at advantageous rates.

When university courses are desired by officers or men (and the demand is growing), these are cabled for direct to the universities concerned, and the academic authorities vie with one another in giving assistance in every possible way.

Directed reading, whereby books—and in some cases a tutor—are provided for the officer or man who wishes to study one particular subject rather than to take a course, has been found to meet a real demand. The variety of interests is phenomenal, as the following list—which could be made very much longer—shows: aero-engines, navigation, pulp and paper making, foundry technique, physiotherapy, textiles, photography, harmony and counterpoint, poultry-raising, theology, calculus, cartography, advertising, mineralogy, salesmanship, mediaeval history.

A library van containing a large selection of recreational books is continually touring the area; libraries have been established, and the books are being regularly changed in the various units. The demand for technical books and for works on economics and international affairs is increasing.

Lectures by outside speakers were not altogether a success last winter. The scattered nature of the billets, the black-out, and the lack of suitable halls near at hand made units hesitate before inviting lecturers from a distance. The writer is convinced that informal talks given to their own men in billets by regimental officers, most of whom could chat interestingly on their hobby or civilian occupation, are the real solution of the lecture problem. It is possible that the A.B.C.A. plan, whereby, as a part of training and in training hours, officers will give half-hour talks to their men on international affairs, will set a precedent in this regard.

With the assistance of C.E.M.A. an attempt is being made to satisfy the unquestioned demand that exists for good music. Last month, for instance, a series of five concerts was held in two large camps when programmes consisting of some of the lighter works of the great composers were brilliantly performed by outstanding musicians and enthusiastically received by officers and men.

Let it be said with all honesty that these things are only a beginning. Thousands of Canadian soldiers are still untouched by the opportunities offered. Men begin their studies with enthusiasm and their interest wanes. Unit Education Officers are on the whole doing good work but they have many other duties and are often changing. Continuity of policy is thereby impeded and the programme in the unit suffers. In view of the number of troops to be served the permanent staff of civilian Educational Advisers is wholly inadequate. But, when all this is admitted, there remains some solid achievement. Most C.O's would agree that the educational programme, ineffective as it has often proved, has none the less helped to banish boredom during these long months of waiting and thus to promote military efficiency here and now. Further, it is reasonable to hope that, when the time for demobilization comes, the experience now gained will result in the rapid expansion of the present machinery into an organization sufficiently comprehensive to play an essential part in the soldier's transference to civil life.

CORRESPONDENCE

THE SPOKEN WORD

SIR,—The correspondence on " The Spoken Word " in last month's *Journal of Education* is most interesting. My answer must this time be rather hurried, though Miss Macdermott may be assured that my original notes were not. A study of the speech-value of verse, extending over thirty years, may excuse some rather summary phrases. The following constructive notes may be more useful than merely meeting criticisms.

For any student of speech, phonetics are an essential equipment, if only as a means of establishing accurate records, but the physics side of vowel analysis as carried out by the more advanced school of phoneticians has little practical application, either to aesthetic speech, or to the composer's setting of musical melody to words, though it is possibly useful in the analysis and study of unknown tongues and dialects. The science which must underlie all proper speech-training is physiology; where phonetic conclusions contradict physiological facts it is not the physiologist who must give way. The foundation of all aesthetic speech is rhythm. Utterance implies audible movement; this movement must obey the rhythmic law of harmony between force, time, and space. I will not venture to speak of poetry, for that is a matter which stands beyond technical definition. I will therefore confine myself to the rhythmic ' patterns ' of verse. Force, time, and pitch have all at some period been used to mark the recurrence of rhythmic pattern. Rhythm does not necessarily imply recurrence at all; time was the basis of Greek recurrent pattern in quantity; stress [isochronous stress] is the basis of English verse patterns. What place does space take ? It is perfectly plain that pitch is the result of spatial movement, whether that pitch is the fundamental note of the keyed instrument, of the violin, or of the flute, or whether on the other hand it consists of the resonations which colour and transform the fundamental note as in song or speech. The composer exults in orchestral colour, but his melodies are based on fundamental scales.

When we try to discuss the values of these different elements in written or printed matter, we are conscious of an insuperable difficulty. Here for instance we have Prof. McClure stating that the vowels of ' moon ', ' brook ', ' hid ', and ' leaf ' have a *characteristic* resonance of almost if not quite the same pitch ! That they can be spoken or sung to a fundamental note of the same pitch is obvious. The oscillograph record of the first and last make the other statement inadmissable. Are the people making the tests capable of producing pure, sustained, and significant vowel sound at will ? Are the recorders capable of the rapid

(Continued on page 490)

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RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS

The following is the text of a letter from the President of the Rationalist Press Association to the President of the Board of Education, September, 1941 :—

WE view with deep concern the proposals for intensified religious education in schools contained in the recent Declaration submitted to you by Lord Wolmer on behalf of a number of members of both Houses of Parliament. These proposals, which are modelled upon the scheme drawn up by the Archbishops of Canterbury, York, and Wales, are, in our view, open to the following serious objections :—

(1) The Declaration assumes that " truth, freedom, and justice " are principles peculiar to the Christian philosophy of life, and that consequently it is necessary, in order to establish these principles more firmly, to permeate our educational system with Christian instruction. This assumption has no foundation in fact. The ideals of truth, freedom, and justice are shared by many non-Christian religions ; they were formulated long before the Christian era, and are pursued to-day by a vast and increasing number of people who have no connection whatever with any organized religious body.

(2) The Declaration assumes also that there is a standard form of Christian education and worship acceptable to all Christians and to the nation as a whole. Actually the various Christian denominations differ, in some cases violently, upon vital points of doctrine, and therefore have widely different conceptions on the character of the religious instruction and exercises appropriate to schools.

(3) In view of these sectarian incompatibilities, it is highly significant that on the present occasion the rival denominations have combined to impose an increased measure of religious instruction on our schools. This strange combination for a common purpose includes even the Jewish Church, which teaches that all Christian sects are founded on error. It is patent, therefore, that the union of forces does not represent any unity of doctrinal principles, but is intended to secure for each denomination an equal right to give instruction on denominational lines. In other words, each denomination, together with the Jewish Church, is fighting for its own preservation in connivance with the other denominations. The present situation is one in which inveterate enemies have sunk their acute differences in order to prepare a common assault on the schools and gather the children in on a ratio basis according to the reputed or nominal adhesion of parents to a religious body.

(4) If the proposals embodied in the Declaration are adopted there will be increased pressure by priests, clergymen, and rabbis upon parents to withdraw their children from school for special religious instruction. The cleavages that religious differences cause in social life will thus be reproduced in an intensified form in every school, and the influence of a liberal education in assimilating heterogeneous elements into a unified community will be largely nullified by the demonstration in the daily life of children, throughout both elementary and secondary instruction, of the existence of ancient and implacable antipathies.

(5) The teachers will likewise suffer from the proposed increase of activity by religious denominations in school life. The appointment of teachers is bound to be conditioned more and more by their declared religious convictions. Conscience clauses are no safeguard in this connection, as the knowledge that conformity to a certain religious view will be a factor of importance is bound to act as a covert incitement to teachers to profess convictions which their reason rejects, since the alternative is to risk position, advancement, and opportunities for employment.

We desire, therefore, to protest against the proposals embodied in the Declaration as reactionary, undemocratic, and calculated to revive sectarian divisions among parents, teachers, and children. We protest also against the machinery of public education, financed by the people for the people, being put at the disposal of sectional bodies whose object is to propagate their particular religious opinions by dogmatic instruction of children through their most impressionable years.

On behalf of the Rationalist Press Association Limited,

CHARLES M. BEADNELL, C.B.
(Surgeon Rear-Admiral, R.N., ret.),
President.

All those who are in sympathy with the views expressed above are invited to communicate with the General Secretary, The Rationalist Press Association Ltd., 5 Johnson's Court, Fleet Street, London, E.C. 4

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alternations needed for quick comparison? Is the fundamental note itself blurred by breath error or distorted by submission to the inevitable conflict between the antagonistic series of swallowing movements—a vital function—and speech, a lately acquired function picked up haphazard fashion with no thought but that of carrying on communication and reply between individuals?

For over twelve years I was in constant touch with a group of workers, including Dr. Aikin, Prof. Daniel Jones, and Walter Ripman, working out the necessary principles of phonation, vowel shaping, articulatory action, and significant speech in the speaking of verse. Then results were submitted to the poets themselves, often by speaking their own verse, and only when they found the result a correct interpretation of their intention was it felt that some result had been achieved. What emerged was clear enough. The content of the poem stands first. The instant recognition of the pattern of its verse in every detail follows. That pattern arises in the poet's mind through kinaesthetic memory, the stored memory of those movements which create sound; he *feels* himself speak in silence quite as much as he hears himself speak and often much more accurately. He is not much interested in ordinary speech inflection, because it tends to overlie and to destroy the musical pattern and the metric balance of his verse. While he is, if I may venture to use the word, 'inspired', his notation is almost uninterrupted. Any one who cares to examine carefully the Byron manuscript of such a passage as the great Greek apostrophe in *The Giaour* will see that at the lines beginning "These scenes their story not unknown" the pen took charge; there is hardly a correction or an interlineation, while in the earlier lines, if my memory serves me, as many as four variants have often been tried. Always he is seeking the sound of the sense rather by assonance than by mere onomatopoeia. He is not inventing a new vocabulary. The language of everyday speech is full of metric devices; onomatopoeias like 'swift', 'block', 'thrust', 'lonely', are universal in all languages. One may only suggest a partial doubt: is there not always the danger that associative memory plays the larger part in these echoes? If they are heard in a language like Arabic, where they are completely divorced from our own kinaesthetic word memories, I have not often been able to pick them out. In a language with a marked difference of stress patterns—tonic accent, for instance, in French, opposed to the stress accent of the English—it is easy to be confused. Even the cuckoo does not attain his synonym in many European languages. This basis of onomatopoeia inspires assonance as the basis of Celtic rhyme, alliteration as the basis of Early English verse, tonic stress and rhyme as the inevitable factors of French poetry.

Only, when we come to analyse, we find it will become rapidly wearisome if a Swinburne trusts to it without sufficient significant association.

"With lisp of leaves and ripple of rain"

is exquisite; but the sorrows of Dolores are mitigated by the close identity of her repeated vowel euphony. I do find in Miss Macdermott's book, pages 88 to 101, a definite claim that vowel sequences, irrespective of sense, suggest, for instance, "heavy rounded bulging forms", "heavy scents", &c., and Mr. McClure hears deep sorrow where an actor would recognize bitter irony in the Hamlet quotation. Surely in sorrow he would have worn a 'sable' and not an 'inky' cloak, though it is the significance of the two words that would have caught my attention.

Pace Lewis Carroll, it is perhaps a wicked trick to transliterate a well-known series of assonances as clearly as possible, and transmute Tennyson's

"Myriads of rivulets hurrying through the lawn"

into

"Miriam so frivolous currying tumid prawns".

Here we are surely conscious that laughter at least deafens us to a perception of the musical claims of the series. We are charmed by 'burnish' but not by 'turnip'; by 'the cloud-capped towers' but not by 'the foul tap scours'. There is music in 'innumerable bees' but not in 'innumerable fleas', where the slight disphonia of disgust perhaps destroys it. 'Butter and honey' are lost in the famous Spoonerism 'Hutter and bunney'.

"Beans had 'em, make it fiz" (see *Hamlet*!)

suggests no depth of sorrow in elucidation for the significance of the nonsense.

Cadence is dependent upon the harmony of the fundamental note with logical significance, emotional content, and verse structure. That is the true measure of the verse speaker's art. The same thing infinitely intensified happens in the perfect singing of a musical air, where we are conscious of the vowels only in their sense values, and their harmonics are blended in the intensified pitch vibration of the 'tune'.

I felt my quoted authority on the relative values of ear and mechanistic methods to be impeccable enough to avoid the challenge in Mr. Wood's kindly note. It does not beg the question as Mr. Wood suggests. It is only congruous to all that we know of the relation between mechanical and living art. I gather that Miss Macdermott practically accepts the absurdity of the phonetic 'back' and 'front' resonations, but I suggest that the vital importance of 'undertones', particularly in dramatic verse, can be easily tested by finger touch and that, as they enrich 'ee' and the short 'i' in a remarkable manner, they should be accepted. Two short and simple principles common to the knowledge of all trained singers and verse speakers might clarify the differences between us.

1. In regard to the tongue position. The tongue tip should never be drawn back from the lower front teeth in English vowel and diphthong sound.
2. The lips should never be drawn back beyond their natural width when at rest in English vowel and diphthong sound.

Any infringement of these principles starts contractional movements which tighten the quality of vowel and vocal tone.

No speaker is ready to speak verse or criticize its speaking until his vocal instrument is physiologically in tune, and his phonetic and phonological equipment admits of absolutely unconscious and effortless articulation, with no thought but of the significance of the poem and the beauty of its form.

To draw attention to details normally unperceived, even by the poet himself, is to risk mechanization and unreality.

I believe that in any case where Mr. McClure's illustrations are, as they so often are, accurate and illuminating, they will be found to result not from attention to the harmonics of the vowels but from the logical association of verbal significance, and from the actual fundamental speech inflexions, suited to the logical and emotional context of the words.

ELSIE FOGERTY, C.B.E.,
Principal, The Central School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art.

Reed Hall,
Streatham Drive, Exeter.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

SIR,—I am grateful to your correspondents who have answered my appeal for the names of modern authors who can convince the young that literature deals with life and gives them an ampler vision of the world. Among the books which they suggest are many that are worth trying, some that I have already tried; but I am still not quite satisfied, and I will try to explain why.

Until recently our civilization has been supported by the twin pillars of Hellenism and Hebraism. English writers have assumed in their readers a general acquaintance with the principles and standards derived from the Bible on the one hand and the great classical writers and thinkers on the

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other. English literature in consequence deals either with the implications of these principles, or with fresh points of view (the romantic for example) which have come to supplement them, or sometimes with revolts against them. In other words, with certain exceptions of whom Shakespeare is perhaps the chief, English literature tends to take for granted the central core of Western civilization, and to deal with its periphery.

To-day the influence of both the Bible and classical culture is apparently waning. The pillars of present-day thought appear to be not Hellenism and Hebraism but Russianism and Americanism. Now the great writers of the Victorian age seem to me to have been engaged in an attempt to restate the first principles of our civilization for the benefit of the middle class that had newly arrived at a position of influence. Since their day many new sections of the population have similarly arrived, to the ultimate benefit of us all; but, if the continuity of tradition is to be preserved, there appears to be a great need for a fresh restatement. It is for authors who are engaged in this restatement that I am looking; not (as Mr. Charles Williams suggests) for writers who are "better" than Ruskin, Carlyle and Co.

Of the authors suggested by your correspondents many are novelists whose works certainly ought to be in any school library, and might well be recommended for private reading, but are not very suitable for study in class. Moreover, a novelist is almost necessarily concerned with the particular and the personal, and only implicitly with the universal and fundamental. Wells, Huxley, Haldane, and others whom your correspondents suggest can give in their various degrees the scientific outlook on life; but that is only a facet, though doubtless an important one, of human nature. Shaw is still a joy to read and an admirable solvent of prejudices and conventions, but his strength is in criticism rather than in construction. My old friend Mr. Claypole suggests approaching the discussion of our present society and its problems *via* Marx and *Mein Kampf*. I would not put either upon the Index, but I should like my pupils to have a background against which to set them; a background that will assure them that man is more than either the plaything of economic forces or the slave of a racial state, or in other words that economics and politics alike must be based upon ethics in the widest sense of the word, and not *vice versa*.

Mr. Claypole deprecates "the leisurely discussion of abstract ideas" in favour of "keen and professional analysis of practical difficulties", and warns me (by the example of the League) that "mere liberalism will not do". Maybe; but we are discussing school boys, and practical directions for the road are useless until you know where you want to go, and why.

Mr. Claypole also declares that "Literary grace is itself a suspect quality nowadays". If he means that modern taste dislikes and distrusts superfluous ornament, I have no quarrel with him: but, if he means that artistic form is to be neglected, that matter and style can be dissociated, and that only the former is important, our disagreement is profound indeed.

None of your correspondents mentions one book which I have found very valuable for use with sixth forms, Lowes Dickinson's *Modern Symposium*. It is, of course, not quite up to date; but it makes an excellent introduction to the discussion of many fundamental questions and its artistic qualities make it enjoyable to read.

In conclusion I would express my hearty agreement with Mr. Claypole's strictures on the English syllabus of the Oxford and Cambridge Higher Certificate Examination. Indeed it was, I believe, the contemplation of the choice of English literature offered by that syllabus which induced the feelings that prompted my letter.

R. KENNARD DAVIS.

Magdalen College School,
Oxford.

(*Continued on page* 498)

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The post of **Organising Secretary** of this Association will become vacant in the Autumn of 1942.

Applications are invited from women with wide experience both in teaching and organising in Secondary Schools and in Committee work. Conditions of appointment may be obtained by sending a stamped addressed envelope to the Secretary, A.A.M., Stoney Cockbury, Winchcombe, Gloucester, marking envelope "Appointment." Closing date for applications, November 25, 1941.

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CORRECTION OF HOMEWORK

SIR,—I think it would be interesting to know how far the old practice of marking mistakes in the various exercises of pupils at school by underlining (in red ink or otherwise), without commenting on each one in class, is still continued. I remember many years ago carrying out, with the co-operation of a chemistry mistress in a high school for girls, an experiment to ascertain the effectiveness of such corrections in chemistry. By setting the same questions a second time, without notice, a fortnight after they had been first set and corrected, and comparing the answers on the two occasions, we found that the improvement was negligible. The old mistakes were reproduced. By adopting the French method of asking one of the girls to go to the blackboard and deal with the questions before the class, with their criticism and help (the unfortunate victim trembling like a leaf until she had been assured that there was nothing inhuman in our procedure), we got far better results. The attention of every member of the class was secured by this method, and a second written test carried out later, again without notice, showed a very considerable improvement in the results.

I was convinced at the time of the experiment that mistresses were then being grievously overburdened by entirely futile corrections of homework. Of course conditions may have improved vastly in the years that have gone by, but you, Sir, whom I have consulted, think that the matter is worthy of consideration.

I would suggest, as a simple means of carrying out an investigation on the subject (though it would of course involve expense), would be to have typewritten copies made of a set of original uncorrected exercises before any marks had been inserted on them by the teacher, and to ask the pupils, a fortnight or three weeks later, to correct these typescripts, without, of course, giving them the opportunity of consulting their own marked exercises.

5 Inverness Gardens, P. J. HARTOG.
London, W. 8.

ANGLO-AMERICAN CO-OPERATION

SIR,—Will you please send me the name and address of a boy in England I could correspond with by letter ?

If so, please send me his name and address.

208 Mulberry Street, MAURICE LITTLE.
Louisville, Georgia, U.S.A.

PS.—Tell him I have a camera and would like to trade photographs with him. I am 13 years old.

SIR,—A reply to this letter has been sent, and it may interest your readers to hear something of the contacts which have been established between the staff and children of the Sturry Central School, Kent, and their counterparts in Berkeley, California, U.S.A.

Before the outbreak of war, the Sturry Central School had the benefit of lectures delivered by Dr. Willard Connelly, Director, American University Union, London, and by Prof. J. B. Condliffe, formerly of the League of Nations Secretariat, Geneva, and now Professor of Economics at the University of California, Berkeley, U.S.A. Links having thus been forged, it was perhaps natural that the stress of war-time conditions should bring about a strengthening of the ties, and a practical proof of the increasingly prevalent feeling, that, on the other side of the Atlantic, there are those who are close comrades with us in spirit, and that children, and the education of children, are mutual interests from which, out of the present turmoil, closer unity and understanding will arise.

Through the initiative of Prof. and Mrs. J. B. Condliffe, material help has been forthcoming in the form of gifts of money which already, during the past year, have, amongst many other benefits to the children, been utilized to provide clothing and boots in necessitous cases, to supply a course of cod liver oil and malt for the whole school, extra milk, additional hot drinks during the severe weather, and have given opportunities for supplementing the midday communal meal which caters for approximately 210 children and staff daily. In addition, it has been found possible to maintain and expand the social and recreative activities of the day school, the Old Scholars' Association, and the Evening Institute.

Parallel with the material help granted by the school's American friends, we have been exchanging letters with the staff and children attending Junior High and High Schools in Berkeley, California. Miss L. Reynolds, of the Whittier University Elementary School, with the support of her Principal (Mr. Burkhard) has been authorized by Dr. Kyle, Director of Education for Berkeley, to form a committee of teachers to develop exchange of letters as a regular school project. It will be understood that this exchange of correspondence is valuable to our children in that it brings home to them in an intimate sense the realities of American ways of life, and assures them, moreover, of good nature and kindliness from parents and children living 6,000 miles away. It is a spiritual reaching-out to them in times of stress. To quote from a letter from Miss Reynolds, " Thus in our small way we can assure you that distance and distressed times are no separators of hearts ".

By encouraging that friendliness which is the natural attribute of all children, we are able to show our appreciation of the goodwill extended, and thus to reciprocate in full measure the efforts which are being made by the staffs of the Berkeley schools for the furtherance of co-operative understanding between American and British children.

G. E. DRAPER HUNT,
Headmaster, Sturry Central School, Kent.

SIR,—We are very grateful indeed for your thoughtfulness in sending us a copy of the June number of *The Journal of Education*, which contained the letter from Jennifer Turner. It is interesting to get such an informal reaction to the problems of school life here from one of our English girls. We have had six English visitors this year besides Jennifer, and in every case they have fitted most happily and satisfactorily into the life of the school here. This is a college preparatory school—all our students go on to college.

On the whole the group has been of more than average intelligence so that we have not been able to judge them fairly in comparison with our own American girls ; but I would say that they are much better trained in languages and history but less advanced in mathematics than the average girls of their age and years of schooling here in the States. I am enclosing a transcript of their records in certain achievement tests which are given to a large group of independent schools here by the Educational Records Board. The Board scores the children according to a percentile rating so that we get a very good comparison of the work of our girls with the work of girls and boys in other private schools. This is, of course, only a very unimportant comparative picture, but it may be of interest to you or some of the other members of your staff. The school records of all these girls are better than the average, with the exception of one, which is a good average.

I was much impressed with the copy of *The Journal* which you sent us, particularly so because it must represent no mean achievement to publish a journal devoted to problems of education in a country so torn by war. Congratulations to you ! It gave to me increased feeling that there must be in England many people with their faces still set towards the future in spite of all that is happening in the present. We here in America, which is close to the moment when we shall take the final plunge, are glad to feel that there are those in England who can think and plan for the future.

SARAH B. WHITAKER,
Northampton School for Girls, Principal.
Northampton, Mass., U.S.A.

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EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

SOVIET EDUCATION

A WEEK-END school for teachers on Education in U.S.S.R., organized by the Society for Cultural Relations with the U.S.S.R., was held on September 13 and 14 at the Royal Hotel, London.

In the first lecture, on the Constitution and General Organization of Soviet Society, Mr. Andrew Rothstein, London correspondent of Tass Agency, gave to a crowded audience of more than 400 a picture of an equalitarian socialist society which has eliminated landlords and private employers, and established a system in which the whole working population labour, directly or indirectly, for the community. He pointed out that 95 per cent of the population were either factory and State employees, or collective farmers. This change in the economic basis of society had led to an increasing sense of individual responsibility to society which was fostered in every possible way. The individual was the decisive factor and every means was adopted to develop the capacity, creative effort, and initiative of the individual.

This policy was evident in the educational sphere; educational advance depended on social and economic advance, and there was an increasing demand for access to the fullest cultural advantages.

Maximum freedom for the individual also meant that the many formerly backward colonial nations must be brought up to the economic and cultural level of the more advanced. For this purpose, endless energy and huge sums of money had been devoted to the educational development of these backward areas, which now had their own schools and colleges, and could develop their national characteristics; these national groups were also represented on terms of equality in the Supreme Soviet or Parliament. All these developments had been possible only on the basis of a large-scale industry organized on socialist lines; this same basis had made possible the present stubborn resistance to German aggression. The self-reliance and initiative of the guerilla fighters had grown out of the individual independence and freedom of the peace-time environment.

A selection of films shown in the evening gave a picture of the hundred nationalities within Soviet borders, and of a children's club in Leningrad devoted to the artistic, scientific, cultural, and recreational activities of children out of school hours.

With this general background in mind the audience heard on the second day more specialized lectures on Soviet education and health services. Mrs. Beatrice King, under the chairmanship of Mr. Wilkinson, Headmaster of Upper Latymer School, described the general system of Soviet education. It was, she said, a classless system, with equal opportunities for all, regardless of sex or nationality; it was therefore co-educational throughout, and designed to meet the needs of all children from birth up to the age of 18. The social and political side of education corresponded to the structure of Soviet society; at the age of 14 children studied the economic structure of their own society and that of other countries.

In administration, the Commissariat of Health was responsible for children up to 3½; after that, the Commissariat of Education was responsible. Twenty-two per cent of the central State budget was allocated to education; local authorities allocated further sums, and additional contributions for improving equipment came from factories, collective farms, and other local institutions.

From 3½ to 8 the child attended a nursery-infant school, but at present this was not made compulsory as the provision of such schools was not yet universal. Compulsory education up to 15 was not specialized to any degree; it was believed that 11 was too early an age at which to decide a child's mental capabilities. About one million children were transferred at 15 to industrial schools, where the daily curriculum included five hours industrial and two hours general education. At 16 a further group went from the secondary schools to shorter industrial courses lasting six months. In no case were any children allowed to earn their living before the age of 17.

A small fee was payable for children remaining at school after the age of 15, except where the parent was unable to pay, or where the child attained the standard of excellent in two-thirds of his subjects. At 18, the universities and other higher institutions were open to all students of ability, with no social or economic barrier standing in the way.

Considerable attention was paid to providing clubs for every conceivable out-of-school activity; these clubs were staffed by trained experts. Permanent children's theatres had also been instituted.

In the class-room the teacher aimed at creating a collective spirit among the pupils in tune with that prevailing in society outside the school. There was a considerable degree of self-government, but this was kept within the child's experience of life. Disciplinary problems were also helped by trying to secure full co-operation with the parents, who were taken into the confidence of the teacher and often attended courses and lectures on the problems of home and school life. Corporal punishment of any sort was forbidden by law.

The curriculum was in general similar to our own; but science and its role in human society received greater emphasis; knowledge of a foreign language was considered an essential part of culture and was learnt by all pupils at school and university. Great attention was also paid to political education.

The final lecture, on Soviet Health Services, was given by Dr. Joan McMichael, Assistant Medical Officer of Health for Southall, with Dr. J. D. Scott, Medical Officer of Health for Fulham, in the chair. Dr. McMichael pointed out that the Soviet Constitution gave every citizen the right to free medical advice and treatment. Great emphasis was laid on preventive medicine and on health education for all citizens; lectures and demonstrations were arranged for adults by the Institutes for Health and Culture, at which the importance of early consultation and diagnosis was stressed. There was a very complete network of ante-natal and mother-and-child welfare clinics where full advice on all subjects relating to health was given.

At school, children were trained to organize their own health provisions; health posters and cartoons were displayed in the class-rooms, and each class-room had a question box into which a child could drop a written question on any matter perplexing him; these were dealt with by the school doctor. Every school had a doctor as a full-time member of the staff.

In summer most of the city children spent long periods in one of the many permanent holiday camps; this had greatly eased war-time evacuation problems.

The impression carried away from these lectures was one of high aims, rapid progress, struggle against imperfection and failure, and a joint determination of people and Government to build a healthy and educated generation. All the lecturers were rewarded, if not exhausted, by a barrage of questions which demonstrated the deep interest taken by the teachers present and the wide knowledge of the lecturers. The large attendance shows a widespread desire within the teaching profession for information about Soviet civilization; many of those attending are hoping that the Society for Cultural Relations with the U.S.S.R. will be able to arrange a longer school dealing more widely with the various aspects of Soviet civilization, to take place in December or January.

M. M. WILES.

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EDUCATION UNDER THE NAZIS

EDUCATION under the Nazis may be divided into three separate classifications: (1) Education for the Germans; (2) Education for Germanic peoples in occupied territories; and (3) Education of the non-Germanic peoples in occupied territory.

Into the second classification fall the Dutch, Norwegians, Belgians, and into the third, Czechs, Poles, &c.

After more than a year of Nazi domination on the Continent it is possible to get a glimpse of what Hitler is aiming at. News reaching this country is sparse, but letters do get through and some newspapers can be bought in neutral countries and sent to Britain. By combing these sources it is possible to piece together the picture of education under the Nazis.

GERMANY

First a word on Germany herself. In *Mein Kampf* Hitler wrote: "The first stages of human civilization were not based so much on the use of tamed animals, as on the employment of human beings who were members of an inferior race."

From this it may be gathered that the Germans intend using the peoples under their domination to work for them while the Germans themselves direct, lead, learn, and rule. But a glance at German education since 1933 shows a different picture. A people which lives by force and expects others to slave for it has no intellect, no desire to learn, and so education in Germany has gradually deteriorated.

In February of this year even the newspapers began to complain that German youth was ignorant even of the three R's. This is what the *Hamburger Tageblatt* had to say:

"There have been many complaints from the Wehrmacht regarding the standard of knowledge among men going in for Wehrmacht examinations. At recent examinations for 179 apprentices, 94 spelt names without capital letters, 81 misspelled Goethe's name."

With the children constantly called to drill and learning to bully, they have little time for study. In the schools hours are spent showing the children that the Germans are a superior race. This may be well enough for the régime, but is not education.

Dr. Simoneit, scientific head of the psychological laboratory of the War Office, had something to say about this. "The young men who leave the secondary schools", he wrote, "have very considerable gaps in their knowledge and they have frequently wrong conceptions as regards intellectual work. Stupidity and laziness of mind have always been stains in the character."

Even the army is beginning to complain that young men entering its ranks are ignorant. In a letter to the *Frankische Tageszeitung*, Colonel Hilpert wrote: "What is one to say when a young man reaches the top form without having read Schiller's *Wallenstein*, or, indeed, knowing anything about it, or when another, who wants to be an officer, has not read a single book on the world war?"

The *Militar Wochenblatt* recently made the same complaint about cadets. "Cadets have themselves acknowledged that they are only concerned to cover as many sheets of white paper as possible with black marks. It is astonishing that so many pages could be filled without anything positive being said."

In the universities the situation is just as bad. Quite apart from military duties in different Hitler organizations, all of which take up a great deal of time, criticism and free discussion have been abolished. A student dare not express an opinion contrary to those laid down by the uniform plan for the universities. For, if he did, the error of his ways would be forcibly pointed out to him with cries of "traitor", and he would be packed off to a concentration camp.

Gradually the number of students at the universities has dwindled. In the 1932–33 year, that is the year Hitler came into power, 97,576 German men (not including Jews) and 18,578 women attended the winter term. Already in 1936–7 the numbers had fallen to 52,328 men and 7,780 women. What the figures were just before the outbreak of war is not known but they must certainly have dropped further.

This slow deterioration of education in Germany, at first hailed as the saviour which was to wrench the people from Jewish intellectualism, is now a source of worry to the authorities.

Dr. Albert Holfelder discussed education in the columns of the *Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, in April this year. "The many complaints", he wrote, "about the defective standard of performance in the German schools, which are being voiced everywhere in increasing measure, deserve greater attention. . . . Our youth to-day lacks elementary knowledge and those accomplishments which one needs at all times to succeed in the battle of life. A lot depends upon the ability to do elementary sums and to write without mistakes, and critics point to shortcomings in just those subjects, as well as diminution of memory, the power of thought, the ability to make decisions, &c."

It would be possible to cite article after article and letter after letter from educationists complaining of the gradual rotting away of German learning.

Even some of the Nazis themselves complain. Baldur von Schirach, leader of the Hitler Youth, recently told his little brown-shirted ruffians that they must not forget their books, but reading is a habit soon dropped by a child and the children have had little time for reading since Hitler came to power.

DANES—NORWEGIANS—DUTCH—BELGIANS

The above nations fall into the second category, Germanic peoples who may, some day, be integrated with the pure German people. It is not certain what Hitler intends doing with these people if he wins the war. Perhaps he will try to crush the life out of them just as he doing to the Czechs, Poles, and Jews. However, while education goes on in these Germanic countries, it is well injected with Nazism and this often causes trouble.

Denmark, for instance, was intended to be the Nazi showpiece. The Danes, a Germanic people, are the closest to Germany, and Hitler intended to show the world how well he looks after his dear children.

But the children are not always willing to learn his way, and at Aarhus University the specially selected lecturers have often to teach with storm-troopers at their sides to enforce discipline.

The recalcitrance of the universities has more or less persuaded the Nazis that there is little they can do to convert Danish youth, but high-school children, who know less about politics, are more pliable, and it is learned that full pressure will be brought to bear on the high schools. Whether the teachers will fall into line is not known, but it needs little imagination to guess what will happen to them if they don't.

In Norway the local Quislings look after education. Collective disciplinary measures have been taken against all schools; teachers have been dismissed, and classes sent down for a whole year simply because they refuse to learn the Nazi way. All children who express political views contrary to the orthodox ones are expelled and their learning is finished. This, of course, has created chaos. Many children want to leave school and take the necessary steps to do so. Others just don't trouble to come because they are bullied by the uniformed children of the Quislings.

This process is part of the Germanization of the Norwegians. The difference between Germans and Norwegians is that the former accept the new régime and obey, whereas the latter revolt.

In Holland the position is more or less the same as in Norway. At a recent German-Dutch educational congress, Seyss-Inquart, the German Commissar, told teachers that they would have to teach Dutch children that they come

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" from the roots of the same German heritage ", as the rest of the Germans.

Meanwhile the Commissar has opened a course for teachers " to prepare for a revision of instruction in the new spirit ". Teachers are taken to Oldenburg to be instructed in German education, and the Germans are opening their own schools with their own teachers all over the country so that sooner or later German and not Dutch will be the mother tongue of many children.

In Belgium the German Military Command ordered a School-book Commission to " revise and improve school books, many of which do not deal with the relationship of Belgium and Germany in harmony with the German conception of honour and historic fact.

Belgian teachers and professors are being exchanged with German schools and universities, including Berlin, Vienna, Munich, Bonn, and Cologne. At Ghent University four German professors are in charge.

Czechs and Poles

The third category is the most pitiable, for the Germans are determined that these peoples shall be crushed out of existence. At first they are to slave for the Germans, but, since it would be wrong to let the Germans grow flabby while slaves worked for them, sooner or later the slaves would have to be put out of their misery. The need for education, therefore, does not exist for Czechs and Poles.

It might be enough to say that most of the schools and all the universities are closed ; but readers may like to know a little more about the appalling conditions prevailing in Poland and Czechoslovakia.

The Germans started by raiding colleges and universities, arresting thousands and killing any who showed any resistance. Professors of all universities were immediately sent to concentration camps, many of them to the notorious Oranienburg camp in Germany and many of them are now known to be dead.

In Cracow all the teaching staff were invited to listen to a lecture to be delivered by a German professor. The lecturer began a violent and filthy attack on Polish culture. As one man all the Poles rose to leave. Lorries were awaiting them outside the building and that was that.

In Prague children still attend those schools which have not been taken over by the military or the storm-troopers. Parents who send their children to these schools have to sign an agreement that the children will show no hostility to their German teachers, and that they will not write anti-German slogans in their copy-books.

In secondary schools, which also have been closed for the most part, classes are reduced from twenty to twelve. German schools are, however, being established, not for the Czech children but for the Germans. The Czech schools are gradually being given up.

It is established that all schools in Czechoslovakia now come under the *Kulturverband der Deutschen*, which means that Czech education is finished.

In Poland all elementary and high schools have ceased to function, but German schools have been opened. Where some teachers are determined to carry on classes, the Germans, unable to put the whole nation into concentration camps, just confiscate text-books. In some sections of the country primary education has been revived by the Germans, but flogging has too, and the German inspectors see to it that this novelty is not being overlooked.

On the other hand, vocational schools have been opened. Polish children have been told that, since higher education is no longer available, they had better learn to use their hands—this, presumably, to enable them better to work for their German masters.

In the ' Germanic people ' countries, education is being strictly revised to come into line with the German, on the understanding that their German heritage cannot make them quite so good as the Germans and they must not expect too much.

S. H. Kahn.

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NEW MEDIA

"IF YOU WERE AMERICAN"

SYMPATHY between the children of the world would go far to guarantee the friendship of nations; and our present need to better our understanding of the American people emphasizes the wisdom of making our children known to one another, as good friends do who wish to perpetuate a bond between their families.

An interesting method of encouraging such sympathy is being used by school-broadcasting. This takes the form of a new series which is being launched on the air this term. The series is entitled "If You Were American". It is being written and presented by Miss Norah Waln, the American author. Miss Waln is already known over here for her intimate record of Chinese life, *House of Exile*, and *Reaching for the Stars*, a close-up view of the Nazi régime.

In "If You Were American", Miss Waln aims at giving our children an idea of the background of American family life—not only the modern background, but also a historical background that goes back to the first emigrants. For this reason Miss Waln is telling them stories of a Yorkshire Quaker family—her own—who left England with William Penn in the seventeenth century. She will tell them how the Walns, representative of all early English settlers, prepared a promise of good living that came to be the ideal of all who went from the continent of Europe to build a new world. She will, in fact, tell them stories of her family that have come to her from three sources; from the remote past, through her grandfather; from the near past, through her own experience; and from the present, through her own daughter. These stories will be told in dramatic form and, while no attempt will be made to present a continuous history, they should give the children vivid impressions of many things that go to make the traditions and the life of America. They will include, for instance, the story of how the Liberty Bell was rung in Philadelphia; a story of how the White House got its name; a story dealing with the relations between the white man and the black man; and a story—called "The Fancy Dress Party"—which will illustrate the mixed strains of nationality in the United States.

The introductory broadcast to "If You Were American" was auspicious, for Miss Waln was presented to the schools by Mr. Butler, the President of the Board of Education. In a conversation at the microphone—a conversation which somehow included the listening children—Miss Waln and Mr. Butler referred to the prevalent idea of America that fills the minds of many of our young people to-day—a confused idea in which gangsters, skyscrapers, and fenceless gardens have a place but no order. Miss Waln then assured her hearers that the stories she had to tell would speak the truth about some of these famous aspects of America, and that the truth was just as exciting as the fiction of films and Wild West thrillers.

The last programme in "If You Were American" will be "The U.S.A. Calling British Schools"—a broadcast from the States, in which American children will speak to British schools. Surely, as Miss Waln said in her first talk, this will do much to help the children of the two continents to "grow up together as friends and help to make a world where peace is secure and adventure still exists".

HONOR WYATT.

"MRS. T. AND HER CABBAGE PATCH"

THIS film, the second to be produced by the Electrical Association for Women in conjunction with the Board of Education and with the approval of the Ministry of Food, is directed by Miss Mary Field, of G.B. Instructional Ltd. 'Mrs. T.' is seen with 'Mr. T.' and 'Miss T.' in their electric flat having breakfast. The lay-out and equipment of the electrically equipped canteen kitchen are of special interest, and there is much to be gained from the film regarding the preparation and serving of home-grown vegetables and the general running of a canteen.

"FILMS OF BRITAIN, 1941"

THE British Council has come in for some hard criticism lately, but it carries on apparently unshaken in its endeavours to tell the world about Britain. Its policy is admirably stated by Mr. Philip Guedella in the introduction to their film catalogue *Films of Britain*, 1941. He says, "These films form part of an effort to portray the face of Britain and her people in their everyday lives and work, as they went about them in the eager, anxious months of a great war. There is no attempt in this series to depict the nation's war effort or to state the issues which the war raises for ordinary men and women throughout the world. That purpose is quite distinct from our purpose which is directed by a broader design." The catalogue *Films of Britain*, available from the British Council Films' Department, 3 Hanover Street, London W.1 is handsomely produced and should impress those people abroad for whom it is intended. Each page of the letterpress is faced by two photographs, "stills" from the films described there. These are excellent testimonies to the high photographic quality of these films which are intended to put Britain on the screens of the world—Britain as she is, not as seen through the eyes of the commercial film camera, and thus the Council may be said to be giving practical proof of Britain's highest educational ideals, objectivity and truth. The films are divided into seven sections, *viz.* British News (which is circulated throughout the Colonial Empire and consists of specially edited extracts from the ten weekly news-reel issues), General, Industry and Commerce, Social Services, Technical, Physical Training and Educational. About fifty films are listed and they present to the world many varied aspects of British life such as "Oxford, the University City", "Sailors Without Uniform", "Workmates", "Queen Cotton", "Morning Paper", "Locomotives", "Air-screw", "Wealth from Coal", and so on.

Some have commentaries in Afrikaans, Dutch, French, Portuguese, Brazilian Portuguese, Spanish, and Colombian Spanish, and commentaries in other languages can be supplied. Thus our national life is being made available for those countries to whom a close alliance in peace and war will be mutually beneficial.

A hint of possible future developments in the international distribution of educational films is contained in the note "A large number of films in this catalogue have been certified by the Board of Education as being of an educational character, and are thereby allowed to be imported duty free into certain countries". It is hoped that this system will grow reciprocally in times of peace, and that other countries will make series of films similar to this one of ours for world-wide distribution. Then will all countries be able to draw upon other countries' intimate knowledge of their own geography, life, and customs which must then bear the unmistakable imprint of integrity. The British Film Institute is working to this end and one may be allowed to hope that it will also persuade the British Council to show these films and the other educational films now "on the stocks" in British schools. Many films from the list may be borrowed from the Central Film Library.

"They show", Mr. Guedella concludes, "the enduring fabric of freedom and progress, which lives and works long after war-makers have been forgotten."

R. S. MILES.

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TOPICS AND EVENTS

EDUCATION AND THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION

By L. E. C. HUGHES, Ph.D.

THE normal collective meeting of the British Association was replaced this year by a Conference called by its Division for the Social and International Relations of Science.

Scientists, technicians, sociologists, and planners discussed various aspects of Science and World Order, with emphasis on post-war planning. The original scheme of the meeting, which contemplated a small domestic circle of thinkers and a restricted audience, rapidly expanded to include more than fifty speakers, under Ambassadors as Chairmen, and an audience which taxed the accommodation of the Royal Institution. More than half the speakers were non-British, bringing experience from all parts of the world.

The six Sessions, devoted to Science and Government, Human Needs, World Planning, Technological Advances, Post-war Relief, and the World Mind, respectively, occupied the mornings and afternoons of September 26, 27, and 28. The Conference concluded with the declaration of a Charter of Scientific Principles, recently adopted by the Council of the British Association. This Charter, presented by Sir Richard Gregory, war-time President of the British Association and Chairman of the Division, reads as follows :

1. Liberty to learn, opportunity to teach, and power to understand are necessary for the extension of knowledge, and we, as men of science, maintain that they cannot be sacrificed without degradation to human life.

2. Communities depend for their existence, their survival, and advancement on knowledge of themselves and of the properties of things in the world around them.

3. All nations and all classes of society have contributed to the knowledge and utilization of natural resources, and to the understanding of the influence they exercise on human development.

4. The service of science requires independence combined with co-operation, and its structure is influenced by the progressive needs of humanity.

5. Men of science are among the trustees of each generation's inheritance of natural knowledge. They are bound, therefore, to foster and increase that heritage by faithful guardianship and service to high ideals.

6. All groups of scientific workers are united in the fellowship of the Commonwealth of Science, which has the world for its province and the discovery of truth as its highest aim.

7. The pursuit of scientific enquiry demands complete intellectual freedom and unrestricted international exchange of knowledge ; and it can flourish only through the unfettered development of civilized life.

Sir John Orr, in a striking address, pointed out the need for a great agricultural expansion in order to achieve a satisfactory standard of nutrition for the nation.

Of the papers dealing directly with education, that by Prof. L. Hogben, " The Place of Science in General Education ", was replaced by the consideration of some aspects from the paper which Mr. H. G. Wells, as Chairman, did not give through lack of time. Mr. Wells' paper has already been published (*News Review*, October 9). Also Dr. J. S. Huxley generously waived his paper on " Education as a Social Function " in deference to an urgent request that he should summarize the mass of diverse material, previously presented, for the benefit of the less mentally-hardened members of the audience. Mr. J. G. Crowther, as a scientific publicist of standing, showed the necessity of instructing the public in the potentialities of the application and misapplication of science and technology.

Prof. Max Born pleaded for the inculcation of both collective and individualistic aspects of scientific work in those who studied it beyond the general stage. The subjects of science can be made more attractive to the growing mind by modernizing syllabuses, and by remembering that not all who ought to study science are to become professional scientists.

Mr. J. A. Lauwerys expressed the views of a group who are concerned with the training of science teachers. He severely criticized the present syllabuses, which should be directed to twentieth-century industrial needs and conduct. These, rather than linguistic and literary subjects, should occupy the central position. The content should be broad ; the scientific outlook and the methods of scientific treatment of affairs should be emphasized. Man has immense control over his powers and his future. There must be no monopoly of scientific thought ; curiosity is the highest asset and should be fostered to the limit. Hand-work, visits to factories, museums, and the countryside, and the new tools of radio and the cinema, must all be studied and pressed into use. Science ceases to be a sectionalized subject and becomes the bones of social and mental organization ; it is the activity of the human will.

If these contentions seem too mechanistic, they were balanced by Mrs. S. Neville-Rolfe, deputizing for Prof. F. A. E. Crew. A strong plea was made for developing, through the usual educational channels, each person out of his emotional immaturity. Social biology is a synthesis of the personality and social relations of man, drawing information and concepts from biology, psychology, physiology, and sociology. It relates knowledge to ethical and spiritual values. Youth movements wholly directed by their elders tend to become a fiasco. Youth is demanding a training which will protect itself from the modern man-made brutalization which passes for progress.

Mr. Wells and Prof. Hogben both emphasized the necessity of a common international language, for which a simplified English seems inevitable. Mr. Wells insisted that the only salvation for mankind is through the collection, digestion, and circulation on a colossal scale of all the latest valid knowledge available, so that all men and women may be able to understand the forces which guide their fate, and so control it for collective social ends. When the fighting is over, we must have something ready for those who have fought, and so prevent the disillusionment which usually follows war.

If we accept the definition of education in a recent dictionary—" the process whereby the innate intelligences and emotions of individuals are exercised so as to prepare them to accept and appreciate social organization, withstand deleterious propaganda, and, as far as possible, enable them to develop creative thoughts and actions "—the Conference must indeed have given pleasure to educationists.

NATIONAL FROEBEL FOUNDATION CONFERENCE

" RECONSTRUCTION in Education, with special reference to the needs of children under 12," was the subject of a week-end conference (September 12 to 15) arranged by the Members' Committee of the National Froebel Foundation, and held by the invitation of Miss Jebb at Knebworth House. More than a hundred people ' interested in education ', including teachers from various types of schools and training colleges, representatives of the Board of Education, Ministry of Health, and of local education authorities, besides parents, social workers, Child Guidance workers, and others, met in the historic home of the Earls of Lytton which is now occupied by the Froebel Educational Institute.

In his opening address Dr. H. G. Stead, Chief Education Officer, Chesterfield, stressed the need for " reconstruction, not patchwork ". Saturday morning was devoted to a survey of all the services which affect junior children, and

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experts in different aspects of this work gave brief accounts of what they were doing and some of the problems it presented. These included contributions from public elementary, private, and preparatory schools, Child Guidance clinics, out-of-school activities, evacuation problems, experimental and boarding schools, and were followed in the afternoon by group discussions on the various problems they suggested.

On Saturday evening Prof. Brian Stanley, of King's College, Newcastle-on-Tyne, addressed the conference on " Problems of a Common Education up to the age of 11 ". On Sunday morning Miss Gwen Chesters spoke on " The Psychological Needs of Children under 12 ", a fine preface to Dr. Alexander's address on " The Bases and Means of Selection for different Types of Post-primary Education ".

In his closing address Principal Nicholson, University College, Hull, urged that we should not only formulate our ideals as to what we want the world to be like after the war, but also use concrete imagination to envisage the implications of putting these ideals into practice. At the close of the conference the following resolutions were formulated :

1. In view of the wide variety of services affecting the mental and physical health, well-being, and education of children, it is desirable that all these services should be brought under the single control of a Ministry with wider powers and scope those at present exercised by the Board of Education, and effectively presided over by a Minister of Cabinet rank.

2. No school should be held to fulfil the requirements of the Education Act as regards elementary instruction unless it is open to inspection and officially recognized as efficient.

3. A single code of regulations should apply to all types of school, and, in particular, primary schools should not be at a disadvantage as regards buildings, amenities, and staffing.

4. While recognizing the value of war-time emergency arrangements for the care of children under five, we urge that in any comprehensive scheme of reform adequate provision for nursery education, under qualified teachers fully trained for this work, should be made available for all children.

5. This conference urges the need for a more comprehensive course of training for teachers, to cover at least three years, under college supervision.

A fuller account of the proceedings at the conference will be published in the November number of the *Froebel Bulletin*. This may be obtained by non-members, price 4d., post free, from the Secretary, 2 Manchester Square, W. 1.

DOWNE HOUSE VACATION COURSE, SUMMER 1941

THE members of the course came from four secondary schools evacuated to Berkshire from London and one from Canterbury. There were 39 boys and 67 girls (aged from 12 to 18) and 14 other children, for the most part younger, who did not come from secondary schools. The experiment of mixed camps has been tried before, but for a shorter time ; this was a whole month's community life, and it was apparent that the companionship of boys and girls and the mixture of ages contributed very much to the success of the plan.

The morning was given up to orderly work, land work, forestry, and poultry keeping ; rest and games followed the midday meal, and art work of all sorts took up the rest of the day. The Arts included Music, Drama, Verse-speaking and Spontaneous Production, Modelling, Drawing and Painting, and Dances. The only pre-arranged plan was a haphazard division of the whole party into squads of 7 (to correspond with the size of the tables in the dining-room), and 6 boys' squads and 10 girls' squads were formed. Each had a grown-up squad-leader and elected its own squad-captain. They were encouraged to mix and very soon did so, but as a unit each squad carried out certain household duties in rotation and made a satisfactory working party in the fields or woods.

There was a careful medical inspection by the doctors of the Pioneer Health Centre, Peckham. In some cases special treatment and tonics were suggested.

During the course there were short chapel services twice a day, and after a time the helpers volunteered to take the services themselves and to explain their own views.

Attendance at these services was voluntary, and, though at first many people came from politeness, as time went on there was a noticeable increase of attention and reverence, and two of the older girls arranged and conducted a Sunday evening service themselves. There was a beginning of independent work in this as in other arts.

There is one general criticism which appears to apply to the majority. The overweening importance of the examination in their education is apparent in their attitude to their work and to grown people. Some of these boys and girls had been giving their whole time to preparing for one or another examination, and they were aware that only success in these tests would open the door to the careers they had chosen. Sheer necessity had driven them along the tram-lines of advance, and had taken from many of them the joy in their work which they ought to have experienced. It had made them too tired to give time or energy to any art or recreation, energy had to be saved for examinations and must not be wasted on anything outside. The impression remained of over-stimulation of one side of the mind, and a certain lethargy and lack of discipline on the artistic and imaginative side. This could be remedied by laying as much stress on the reports of teachers as on examination results ; and, if the long summer vacation were used as a fourth term, the work done in the more creative pursuits as well as the work on the land would also be taken into consideration in granting scholarships. In the reports of the course received from the different squads, stress was laid upon the necessity for continuing these courses and for preserving the spirit of freedom and gaiety which characterized this first very imperfect effort.

Any further information in reference to the course can be obtained from Miss O. M. Willis, Downe House, Cold Ash, Newbury, Berks.

Board of Education Publications.—*Circulars* 1564 and 1565 refer to the distribution of milk supplies in schools. At present about 60 per cent of the pupils in grant-aided schools are taking milk under the Milk-in-Schools scheme. The Board now urge every school to take advantage of the scheme. Responsibility for the supply of milk is now vested in the Regional Milk Supply Officer. In addition to the Milk-in-Schools scheme, which applies only to grant-aided schools, the Board announce details of another scheme to enable children in other types of schools to get additional milk to be consumed at the school at ordinary prices. (But see *Notes and Comments*, p. 470.)

Circular 1542A draws the attention of local education authorities to the Fire Prevention (Business Premises) (No. 2) Order, 1941, which replaces as from September 22, 1941, the Fire Prevention (Business Premises) Order, 1941. Copies of a *Memorandum* prepared by the Ministry of Home Security explaining the features of the revised scheme are being sent to all local education authorities for information.

Circular 1556A gives details of important changes in the rationing of cloth, clothing, footwear, and knitting wool.

Circular 1566 refers to Courses of Instruction in Religious Knowledge. Expenditure incurred by local education authorities in providing such courses, or in enabling teachers and others to attend them, will rank for grant. If the Board are satisfied with their content and arrangement, they will also recognize as term courses under *Circular* 1453 Courses in Religious Knowledge, extending over a period of twelve weeks, provided by universities, training colleges, or other appropriate bodies, and will accept for grant purposes

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the expenditure incurred by local education authorities on the salaries of teachers who are released to attend such courses and on the salaries of those employed as substitutes. The Board propose themselves to provide for teachers and others during 1942 residential short courses in religious knowledge, of about a fortnight's duration. The courses dealt with in the Circular are not designed to give instruction in the formularies of any particular denomination.

Administrative Memorandum No. 320 deals with the supply of onions and processed eggs for school canteens.

Administrative Memorandum No. 321 states that the Board recognize for grant cost-of-living or war bonus at a rate not exceeding 5s. a week for men and 4s. a week for women paid to whole-time employees of local education authorities whose remuneration exceeds £250 a year but does not exceed £500 a year.

Administrative Memorandum No. 322 gives information as to arrangements made for obtaining supplies of material and hand tools for technical colleges.

Post-war Education.—Mr. Butler proposes soon to make public a summary of the document relating to post-war education reforms which was issued confidentially by the Board to organizations representing local education authorities, teachers, the Churches, the trade unions, and some miscellaneous educational agencies. Mr. Butler explained that this memorandum was intended to serve merely as a basis for discussion, and, therefore, was not thought suitable for issue as an official publication of the Department.

P.E.P.—Five more issues of *Planning* have reached us. No. 174 deals with Commodity Control Schemes, outlining the main features of the problem, giving some account of recent experiences, and making some practical suggestions for using the principle of control in the interests of world peace and plenty. It might be advisable to form a Raw Materials Union to control production and marketing. We must avoid the mistake made after the last war—the disbanding of all controls and a return to individualist business.

In No. 175 the question of Man and Woman Power is considered with reference to labour shortages and the present maldistribution of labour force. One suggestion is to make members of the Army both soldiers and workers; for example, use the R.E. for particular jobs and release soldiers for industrial employment. It is important to economize youth and mobility among women to the utmost extent. Long hours of employment are definitely uneconomic, and encourage absenteeism. The importance of industrial welfare is also stressed, and there is a plea for greater coordination between the Ministry of Labour and the Service Departments.

No. 176 is concerned with Industrial Reconstruction and Planning Post-War Industry. Plans made now can be used as the basis of propaganda offensives which may play an important part in the achievement of victory. Questions relating to rail, road, and water transport, housing and the building industry, engineering, shipbuilding, and the chemical industries are discussed, and the conclusion is that the authorities responsible *could* give a lead to industry even at this stage of the war, and a start could be made in the preparation of post-war production programmes.

No. 177 discusses Hospitals in War-time and the Emergency Hospital Scheme. Full tribute is paid to the calm bravery of doctors, nurses, and patients during raids, and to the outstanding merits of the scheme. There are, however, certain weaknesses which could be eliminated if the scheme were developed into a National Hospital Service. Detailed suggestions for effecting this are made.

The theme of No. 178 is The New Pattern, and it endeavours to answer the question, 'Where do we go from here?' It almost defies compression, but we may say that, after pointing out that the phase of industrial civilization which is coming to an end depended economically on

R.A.F.

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free individual enterprise, socially on self-help eked out with charity, and politically on a number of civic rights and duties resting on tradition, based largely on property and resisting change, it goes on to say that the remedy for the unfortunate results produced lies in more even distribution of national income, social-security planning to provide more complete social services and full employment for all, and a much wider conception of the duties as well as of the rights of citizens. The fatal class cleavage in the public education system must go, and we must ' learn together ' and ' enjoy things together '.

Town and Countryside Competition.—The 1940 Council and the Housing Centre are promoting another competition similar to that referred to in our issue of November, 1940. This year the object is to give scope for the interest of school children in the physical problems arising in Reconstruction, and to help them to grasp the factors that build up our environment. Entries may take a variety of forms—surveys, reports, or essays. It is hoped to secure responses from senior and secondary schools. Applications for entry forms should be made to the Secretary, Town and Countryside Competition, 13 Suffolk Street, London, S.W. 1.

The Schoolmaster.—With the issue for October 16, *The Schoolmaster* began publication of two new series of illustrated articles on the peoples and countries of the U.S.A. and the U.S.S.R. The issue for October 9 contained messages from M. Maisky, the Russian Ambassador, and Mr. Winant, the American Ambassador, and the first of two articles by F. E. Hansford on " Some Masters of Russian Literature ".

They were Prepared.—The Boy Scouts Association has produced an illustrated brochure depicting some of the acts of heroism and devotion to duty of Boy Scouts in war-time. In a Foreword, Lord Somers, Chief Scout, writes : " The spirit of service is the spirit of the true Scout whatever his rank or age. The spirit of the good turn, ever present in peace-time, has matured to devoted self-sacrifice in war ", and quotes a message from Mr. Winston Churchill : " The record of the work of the Boy Scouts during the war on the Home Front is a very fine one." Every one will endorse this tribute after reading *They Were Prepared.*

Welfare of British Blind.—The seventy-third annual report of the National Institute for the Blind shows that America's recent tribute to the war-time efficiency of blind welfare work in this country was fully justified. It is a record of brilliant achievement in conditions that would have been unthinkable a few years ago, conditions which have entailed the loss of valuable lives and the wrecking of a sunshine home for blind babies, the Institute's talking-book recording studio, the headquarters of its home industries department, and other premises. Blind readers have continued to receive their embossed newspapers, students to have their text-books transcribed into Braille, men and women to be trained as masseurs ; and similar continuity has existed in each of the Institute's other services to the sightless. Time has even been found to send out books in Moon type to the aged blind of America and the Empire. Impressive also are the special war-time duties undertaken by the Institute in respect both of people blinded by enemy action and of the new needs of those already blind. It can to-day offer immediate help to every war-blinded civilian as the casualty occurs, and Homes of Recovery in this connexion are now operating in various parts of the country. The gift of one of these Homes by the American public was a timely and significant act of kindness.

" War-time Billeting."—Among the points stressed in this new Fabian pamphlet by Margaret Cole are these : (1) Much more exact information is wanted—this is practically unobtainable by the outside public except by luck or very pertinacious inquiry. (2) Survey of accommodation should be more comprehensive and more strict, and should take in both empty property and property which is only in partial occupation. There should be a final end to such cases as that of the house-owner who put each of his servants to sleep in one of his guest rooms and then maintained that the house was full. (3) A strong central authority should be put in charge of the whole business of billeting transferred populations. At present no fewer than ten Departments of State are concerned, and no power can force them to agree. There is much to be said for entrusting the whole task to the Ministry of Home Security, working through its Regional Commissioners, whose office should be democratized. Billeting officers should be the paid servants of an outside authority. The main problem will be to see that the house-room available is shared so as to create the impression that justice is being done. An interesting and valuable sixpennyworth.

Gregg Mobile Kitchen.—The newly-established Gregg Writer Fund for British Relief aims at providing at least one Mobile Kitchen Unit, as a gift from the Gregg Shorthand Teachers and Students of America, to assist in the work of aiding the victims of bombed areas in Britain. Stenographers throughout the United States are combining in this great national drive to provide equipment for our bombed areas. An account of what is being done is given in the June number of *The Gregg Magazine.*

Physical Training.—The premises at Dartford Heath having been damaged by enemy action, the Bergman Osterberg Physical Training College is now situated at Kingsfield, Pentire, Newquay, Cornwall. The Nonington College of Physical Education has removed from Avoncroft College, which is being taken over by the Ministry of Agriculture. The College has now settled at Grafton Manor. The latter is in the Bromsgrove area, so that the arrangements for school teaching practice, the playing-field, and gymnasium are still available.

Children's Art.—The exhibition of " Children's Art from all Countries " recently on show in London on behalf of the Refugee Children's Evacuation Fund will be transferred to Oxford for the first week of November, where it will be shown at Therm House, St. Aldate's. The entrance fee is modest (6d.) and the proceeds will go to the above fund and the Oxford Refugee Committee. Of this exhibition *The Times* said : " The exhibition deserves a visit by anyone within reasonable reach." The *Daily Telegraph* said : " Many of the little ones have been very close to the horrors of war, and have tried to depict them in crude outline, with splashes of colour. Of outstanding interest are drawings by a Czech girl of 17, notably the illustration for a ballade called ' The unborn child '."

Schoolmaster Centenarian.—On October 14 last the Rev. Arthur Sewell, M.A., of Salisbury, became a centenarian. He is an old Radleian. At school he won the Ouseley Music Prize. With a choral scholarship he went to New College, Oxford. From 1866 to 1871 he was Assistant Master at Malvern College, from 1871 to 1873 Principal of Southleigh School, from 1874–8 Principal of Litchford House School, Manchester, from 1878 to 1887 he was Headmaster of Waterloo House School, Leamington. His only published work is *Daily Thoughts for Schoolboys.*

Institut Français du Royaume-Uni.—Courses in preparation for the degree of Licence ès Lettres of the University of *Lille* continue to be held at the Institut *Français* du Royaume-Uni in South Kensington. The Burnham Committee have now decided to accept these war-time titles as having the same value and conferring the same privileges as the Licence ès Lettres awarded by a French university.

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NEW BOOKS

AMERICA FACES THE WAR

By Professor F. A. CAVENAGH, King's College, London

THIS series* will certainly help the scheme, sponsored by the Board of Education, for teaching in our schools " something of the ideals that inspire " the United States, " of the men that shaped its history, and of the forces that are working to bring her to our side in our greatest need ". The object of these pamphlets is similar to that of the Oxford series : " just as Americans have been interested in our English pamphlets, so will Englishmen wish to see war problems through American eyes ".

Three of the pamphlets (Nos. 2, 3, 5) deal generally with the American attitude towards the war. Mr. James Truslow Adams writes with his unrivalled authority on the evolution of relations between his country and ours, and finds sufficient community both of interests and of psychological make-up to ensure a " re-union of the two peoples " on a " still looser but a more wide-reaching " basis than that of the present British Commonwealth. " It is because we believe in the same sort of life as the good life, and that our spiritual happiness, our liberties, and our safety depend on our voluntarily working together." All that is true, and to the good. Yet it is somewhat unfortunate that Mr. Adams should have picked out as " the fundamental bond " that weakness (which we undeniably possess), the lack of logic. " The British Constitution ", he says, " never troubled about logic. It is the most illogical thing in the world." And he continues : " The one American contribution, perhaps, to philosophy is the Pragmatism of William James, which takes as its standard, not ' Is it true or logical ? ', but ' Does it work ? ' That has also been the case with the age-long evolution of British liberties and institutions." Without embarking on the immense controversy which these remarks arouse, one may say two things. First, it is to be hoped that we no longer boast of our lack of intellectual effort, of our habit of muddling through, of losing every battle but the last. That Baldwin-like attitude may have worked when we enjoyed relative supremacy : we now need all the ' logic ' (to adopt that misused word) that we and our allies can muster. Secondly, pragmatism has quite different origins from anything in British character. It has been well diagnosed by Prof. Kandel as " the rationalization of the American tradition of rootlessness ". Further, whatever its causes may have been, its effects (whether direct or not I cannot say) are visible in the Nazi system of thought. Truth has ceased to exist : all that counts is what people can be got to swallow in the interests of the Reich. This point is well made by Mr. Walter Millis (No. 3). It is idle, as he says, to argue with the Nazis that their Weltanshauung is " a cruel and grotesque life ", for they will readily admit the accusation and proceed to make it " such a thundering lie that we shall believe it ourselves and then nothing can touch us ". " And the trouble was that they were, in a measure, right. Their system worked. It worked to ends that seemed brutal, retrogressive, destructive to us, but it worked ; and nothing that we could say—nothing that we had said in the twenty-odd years we had been pondering these problems—had the slightest relevance to the issue." Dr. Goebbels has surely driven the last nail into the coffin of pragmatism.

Mr. Millis has written " an essay in autobiography ". It is a fascinating account of what may be called, somewhat crudely, the disillusionment of a pacifist. His earlier books exhibited the evils and abuses that marked the entry of the United States into the Spanish-American and the World wars. But gradually he came to see that it was a fallacy—the Nazis had made it a fallacy—to think of war in the abstract, " an entity to be set aside and examined and combated in itself ". " But war is not abstract, nor a thing in itself. It does not simply grow out of society ; in a sense, it *is* society. It is certainly the most striking, and the most completely socialized, of all social activities." Another fallacy that he lays bare is that of expecting war to be rational ; on the contrary, " we will never do away with it " on rational grounds : it can be fought only with its own weapons, " the only weapons, as we have been taught, which give any promise of success ". Here, I believe, we have the final answer to the pacifist. Paradoxical as it sounds, peace can come—at any rate in a Nazi-ridden world—only through war. And that goes a step beyond the old adage *si vis pacem. bellum para.*

Mr. Stephen Vincent Benét's pamphlet consists of addresses delivered during recent months, and a poem, *Nightmare at Noon*, which is as arresting as one would expect from its author. A few lines will illustrate its quality :

" In Holland, one hears, some children were less lucky.
It was hard to send them anywhere in Holland.
It is a small country, you see. The thing happened quickly.
The bombs from the sky are quite indifferent to children.
The machine-gunners do not distinguish. In Rotterdam
One quarter of the city was blown to bits.
That included, naturally, ordinary buildings
With the usual furnishings, such as cats and children."

The poem is of course a warning to Americans that their time may come ; " There are no trenches dug in the park, not yet ". It all reminds one of the days—how far off they now seem—when we used to read of Barcelona and Guernica ; and when the wiser and more imaginative in this country played the part of Cassandra. The poem was first published on June 23, 1940 : things have moved since then in the United States.

Two pamphlets treat of specifically American problems. Mr. William Agar (No. 7) argues the case against " the fallacy that the conquered people of Europe can be fed without helping the Germans, prolonging the war, and endangering civilization ". If anybody has any lingering doubts on this topic he had better study Mr. Agar's devastating " appeal of reason as opposed to emotion ". Mr. Grayson Kirk's account of the Monroe Doctrine to-day (No. 4) is most enlightening. After reviewing briefly its origins, and the period during which it was effective because of the balance of power in Europe and the tacit support of the British Navy, he considers its transformation (particularly since the Lima Conference of 1938) to an internationalized policy of hemisphere defence. " In theory, at least, the Monroe Doctrine of the preceding century, as a unilateral policy of the United States, has been abandoned." He further deals with the difficulties that the war has brought on South America, and more especially on the southern States, which formerly existed almost entirely on trade with Europe. The only safe solution he finds in full hemispheric defence, which " begins not at the three-mile limit, nor even at the 300-mile limit, but in the future of democratic institutions in Europe ". Yet again one is impressed by the speed with which opinion and action have moved in the United States.

Lastly there are two pamphlets on Germany as seen by able and experienced Americans. It is impossible to recommend them too warmly, for they paint as devastating a

* **America Faces the War.** No. 2 : An American Looks at the British Empire. By J. T. ADAMS. No. 3 : The Faith of an American. By W. MILLIS. No. 4 : The Monroe Doctrine Today. By G. KIRK. No. 5 : A Summons to the Free. By S. VINCENT BENÉT. No. 6 : German Youth and the Nazi Dream of Victory. By E. Y. HARTSHORNE. No. 7 : Food or Freedom : the Vital Blockade. By W. AGAR. No. 8 : Germany Then and Now. By A. E. TAYLOR. (6d. net each. Oxford University Press.)

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picture as Vansittart's *Black Record*, but in a style very different from his slapdash and unhistorical cartoon. Mr. E. Y. Hartshorne's book on *The German Universities and National Socialism* is familiar to many English readers; but since that appeared in 1937 Mr. Hartshorne has made further investigations, especially of case-histories, selections from which are given in this pamphlet. The wording of his title (No. 6) is deliberate. "The driving force in the Nazi 'Movement' is the *dream of victory*. As a necessary adjunct to this aim, the *fight for victory* becomes the activity which above all others gives life meaning. Without the assumption of this *drive toward* victory the whole 'Movement' becomes meaningless." Analysing the pre-Nazi and Nazi generations he shows how they were affected by war, defeat, the Weimar Republic, inflation, &c., so that they were ripe to fall to any dominating personality that should come along and offer them relief from humiliation, insecurity, or fear. The young were particularly susceptible, since Hitler had the astuteness not only to harness their spirit of service for the community, but also to trade on "the adolescent's natural tendency to resist parental authority". Moreover he awakened the age-long mysticism of the German people, which has in the past been so ambivalent a national trait. And, as one of Mr. Hartshorne's 'cases' says, Hitler's doctrines "touch the German Idealist at his weakest spot; they recall to his consciousness the suppressed realization that he is only the philosopher of his own weakness, the slave of his self-created ideology". When the day comes for us to cope with Nazi youth, Mr. Hartshorne's investigations will be of immeasurable value. No less illuminating is Mr. Alonzo E. Taylor's contrast of Germany under the Hohenzollern and Germany under Hitler (No. 8). Writing with first-hand knowledge of life under both régimes he shows in detail how every aspect of German life has deteriorated. There are no sweeping denunciations: everything is stated accurately and dispassionately. His conclusion is that "an enduring peace must include peace within Germany, the recovery of the spirit of equality and rejection of the ambition of dictatorship. Only Germans can recapture the lost soul of Germany".

Since the above review was written, two more pamphlets have been issued. In *American Foreign Policy* (No. 50 of the Oxford series), Prof. Brogan explains the traditional outlook of America on foreign affairs and the changes that have been forced on it in recent years and months. It is particularly interesting to read his account in conjunction with those of the American writers; that applies above all to "the occasional striking discrepancy between the high moral tone taken in foreign affairs by American public opinion, and the much more 'realistic' attitude of the State Department". Yet it would seem roughly true to say that the U.S.A. has not yet grown out of the stage of 'non-intervention'; but with this difference, that, whereas in our case that policy was pursued by a Government that was opposed by enlightened public opinion, it is now the administration that is ahead of the great body of American isolationists. Prof. Brogan traces clearly the steps that were taken to prevent American entrance into another war (the Johnson Act, the Neutrality Act, &c.) and their gradual whittling away. And to those who, forgetting our own slowness to realize the menace of Hitler, grow impatient with America's apparent dilatoriness, Mr. Frederick B. Artz's pamphlet *1917 and 1941* (No. 9 in the "America Faces the War" series) can be recommended. He accounts for the curious fact that, whilst the danger to America is far greater now than in 1917, the American people are far more apathetic about it. He deals in a most illuminating way with four factors: "the crusading myth of 1917 which dreamed too much, the myth of the twenties and thirties which sneered too long, the false objectivity and the essential cynicism that indeed 'taketh away the sins of the world', and lastly the economic maladjustments of our democracy". Of these the third has a special importance for teachers. Here, too, there has been a tendency, arising out of disillusionment, to avoid any approach to emotionalism, to attempt an unbiased attitude—in fact never to commit oneself. But, as Mr. Artz neatly puts it: "the scholar, the minister, and the teacher should be careful, reasonable, and judicious, but being judicious means more than merely collecting evidence, just as being open-minded does not mean keeping your mind open at both ends". Or again: "There are times when a peace hysteria is more dangerous to the values of our civilization than a war hysteria". On both sides well-meaning people have done an immeasurable amount of harm, some through sentiment, others through deliberate or unconscious refusal to face facts. It is not for nothing that the words insularity and isolation have the same derivation.

Yet both writers close on a more hopeful note. "It is a long road", says Mr. Artz, "but for us there can be no other. It is a long road, but, for those who endure, there is light at the end". And Prof. Brogan ends thus: "They (the American people) realize that now, as much as in the crisis of the Civil War, on their action it depends whether 'government of the people, by the people, for the people shall not perish from the earth'."

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN THE U.S.A.

By J. A. LAUWERYS, University of London Institute of Education

IN 1932 the Progressive Education Association appointed a Commission to survey secondary education in the U.S.A., and to make suggestions for its reorganization. The Association was helped by many well-known educators, and, thanks to extremely generous grants from the General Education Board, was able to initiate and to carry through an ambitious and far-reaching programme of inquiry and research. A 'Study of Adolescents' was started and a large staff—teachers, psychologists, anthropologists, physicians, sociologists—set to work to provide a fuller and richer description of human development than had previously been available. A number of committees were appointed to formulate the function of the various subject areas—science, social studies, mathematics, and so on—in the school curriculum and to show how they could be used to facilitate the adjustments which adolescents have to make.

These committees drew up tentative reports, which were discussed by large numbers of selected teachers called together in study-groups, summer schools, and conferences. In addition, experiments were carried out in schools which had been set free, by the universities, from the requirements of external examinations.

All this work has now nearly ended and is beginning to bear fruit. The Commission has already published many books and pamphlets which deal chiefly with problems of human development and with the teaching of special subjects. In addition, there is one volume[1] which "addresses itself to the task of setting forth the common basic approach of the Commission, the agreements which guided it, and the generalizations which emerged in the course of its work. It seeks to examine anew into the meaning of education and the demands which begin to be made upon it as the child emerges into adulthood".

It is not the work of a single person but a magnificent example of co-operation. In consequence, its value and authority are all the greater. It gathers contributions from distinguished scholars, scientists, and educators. It has been criticized by many teachers, and has been tested in the light of experience. In the opinion of the reviewer, the General Education movement which it describes represents the most important and significant line of advance to-day. No one who is seriously interested in education can afford to ignore it.

The study of adolescence showed that the problems of young people, their desires, urges, and strivings, could be grouped roughly under four headings: namely those which

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arise in immediate social relationships (*e.g.* "How can I get on with other people of both sexes?"); in wider social relationships (*e.g.* "I want to pull my weight in the school"); in economic relationships (*e.g.* "What sort of a job ought I to aim at getting?"); and, related to all these, in personal living. Scrutiny of case-history material revealed that it was in these areas that adolescents met their most worrying problems and that social forms required their most profound reconstruction.

The Commission decided that educational experiences in the secondary school must be relevant to the needs of young people growing up in the contemporary social and cultural scene. In order that these needs might be met adequately, the student must be helped to reconstruct and to reorganize his own inner life so as to cope more effectively with his surroundings.

These needs are not merely personal; they are not concerned only with inner integration, they are also socially determined: they arise because individuals grow in and adjust themselves to a particular social order. Meet them in one way, put forward certain goals of action, and you will help to produce Nazis; meet them in another way and you will help to produce budding Communists. Make people realize, by the way you meet their needs, that *all* men are ends-in-themselves and worthy of respect as individuals; make them feel that problems can and should be solved by the free play of intelligence and not by brute force; develop in them a feeling of responsibility for the promotion of common concerns, and you will be fostering in them a love of the democratic way of life. "The purpose of General Education is to meet the needs of individuals in the basic aspects of living in such a way as to promote the fullest possible realization of personal potentialities and the most effective participation in a democratic society."

The Curriculum Committees adopted this point of view in their work. Discarding the formal and traditional approach (such as is adopted in the Spens Report, for instance) they examined anew the subject areas with which they were concerned, and suggested ways in which material drawn from them could be used to meet the needs of adolescents. Other workers, like those of the Tyler group, suggested ways of evaluating the effects produced in the pupils.

Stated thus baldly and briefly these ideas may appear less pregnant and less original than they are. After all, many other educators have said some things that are rather like these. Their recommendations, however, have been, as a rule, vague and general—little more than hopes backed by personal opinions. The recommendations of the Commission, on the other hand, are precise and to the point. They are the summary of, and are backed by, masses of objective and verified knowledge, and their application to practice is illustrated by detailed suggestions.

Reorganizing Secondary Education[1] is concerned not only with the general approach but also with details. It is divided into three parts: "Theoretical Foundation" (66 pp.), "Meeting the Needs of Adolescents in a Democracy" (270 pp.), and "Organization and Administration" (120 pp.). The third part gives some indication of the important work done in providing guidance for pupils troubled by personal difficulties and problems, and also gives an account of the new methods of evaluating the students' progress by observing and interpreting their general behaviour.

It is an ungrateful and difficult task to attempt, within the limits of a short review, to summarize the contents of a long and closely-reasoned book, packed with original ideas. It can be recommended most strongly: it will not disappoint. The point of view it expresses is very relevant to our own needs, and may guide us in that reorganization of secondary education which we all hope will not be too long delayed. Our own adolescents are not so very different from those in the States, and we, too, want to extend and to fortify the democratic way of life.

The General Education movement is rapidly having its effect. As an example, we have Dr. Emmett Brown's description of the new science course at the well-known Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York.[2] This excellent book, which will chiefly interest teachers of science, gives an account of the difference which the new approach makes—in the content of the course, in the method of teaching, in the testing of the effects produced in the pupils, and so on. Here is real 'General Science'—science used for the general education of non-specialists.

Mr. Gove Hambidge's book[3] is very different: it is both easy and popular. It is written in the form of letters from a father to his son who is about to enter college. It is based on the results of a large-scale inquiry made in Pennsylvania by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Fifty thousand individual students were examined and, as a result, interesting conclusions were arrived at regarding the shortcomings of schools and colleges. Mr. Hambidge is chiefly interested in the attempt to do away with mass educational methods and to focus attention on individuals. It is this which makes his book interesting: it represents a healthy reaction against the chief danger to which American education is exposed—over-reliance on mechanism, organization, and administration.

To appreciate fully the meaning and value of what is being done in the States, one needs knowledge of the historical and social determinants which have made American education what it is. Dr. Monroe's *Founding of the American Public School System*[4] is most helpful in this connexion. He describes in an illuminating way how the schools of America have helped to maintain democratic institutions, and to forge a united nation out of the descendants of immigrants drawn from all kinds of cultural, social, and linguistic groups.

It is an exciting story, and one which strengthens faith in the potentialities of the school as an instrument for furthering social progress. He divides his account into two main parts. First, the Colonial Period, during which Dutch, English, and Scottish influences were assimilated and education was universalized. One sees, from his description, why the influences which found clear expression in the writings of Bacon, Comenius, and Milton were able to make their effect felt more strongly overseas than in England. One sees, too, how much was lost to us when the literary-classical strand in our educational tradition became dominant over here, choking out the other. Much may have been gained, but it was gained at great cost. It became difficult to set up a really national and democratic system of which the people would be proud and in which they would take a vital interest.

In the second, and longer, part of his book, Dr. Monroe considers the growth and development of American education from the Revolution to the Civil War—the epoch when it was nationalized, democratized, and made free. He shows how each change, each advance, was made in response to the challenge of pressing problems; that is, he gives an illuminating social interpretation of events which to a superficial observer appear unconnected and haphazard.

The book is noteworthy not only because of its scholarly treatment, but also for other attractive features. It contains a large number of informative and well-reproduced illustrations. In addition, the original source-material on which Dr. Monroe relied has been collected into a second volume. This was too bulky to print, so it was photographed and printed on 35 mm. safety base. Many American libraries nowadays are equipped with cheap reading machines which project clear, bright, easily read pictures of such films. Unfortunately, most British libraries are not. So Vol. II will be less useful over here, a loss which, happily, will be felt only by specialists.

The war has made all of us realize that the best, perhaps the only, guarantee of future social progress and of the maintenance of democracy lies in full co-operation with the

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U.S.A. This co-operation will have to extend into the cultural as well as into the economic and military fields. British educators will not be able to get help from American experience and research, nor will they be able to make their influence felt over there, unless they understand what Americans are trying to do. The books here collected give some of the outlines of the picture.

[1] **Reorganizing Secondary Education.** Prepared by V. T. THAYER, CAROLINE B. ZACHRY; and RUTH KOTINSKY, for the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. (15s. net. Appleton-Century Co.)

[2] **The Development of a Course in the Physical Sciences for the Senior High School of the Lincoln School of Teachers College.** By Dr. H. E. BROWN. (Lincoln School Research Studies.) ($2.25. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.)

[3] **New Aims in Education.** By G. HAMBIDGE. (11s. McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.)

[4] **Founding of the American Public School System: a History of Education in the United States from the Early Settlements to the Close of the Civil War Period.** By Prof. P. MONROE. Vol. 1. (15s. net. New York: Macmillan.)

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN MANY LANDS

By Dr. C. M. FLEMING, University of London Institute of Education

Child Development

FOR more than twenty years the psychology of childhood has been sociological rather than individualistic in its point of view. The child has been considered as one of a family constellation, as a potential citizen showing dominance or submissiveness in a nursery group, as a member of a class in a school, as a social agent acted upon by a variety of community influences. And for more than fifteen years the emphasis in such investigations has been upon long-term studies as much as upon the measurement of performance at specific stages.

This Viennese volume[1] is an interesting addition to the files of such long-term sociological studies of development. It gives a careful record of the behaviour of children toward different people while engaged in various activities and in different situations over periods varying from three months to half a year. Its data were obtained by specially-trained observers whose method was to attach themselves to certain families twice weekly at various times of day and afterwards to report the activities they had observed. Their records were not dependent on mechanical aids such as photography or phonography, but consisted of written descriptions of all recollected contacts made by the children, their parents, nurses, and friends. This material was analysed according to a previously-determined classification indicating themes, means used, psychological situations (social intercourse, play activities, biological situations, school work, domestic activities, situations in the outside world), purposes and attitudes (social, pedagogical, organizational, charitable, economic). Detailed countings were also undertaken of the types of reaction observable in parent-child relations (positive, negative, zero or avoidance) and the tendencies distinguishable in contacts between brothers and sisters (co-operation, opposition, simultaneous, contributive, successive, with or without practical purpose and self-assertion).

The book is copiously illustrated with charts and diagrams for each of these schema for each of the fourteen children described, and it leaves a clear impression of home life which may be compared with that of the best American or English reports on child behaviour.

Much emphasis is laid by Dr. Buhler upon the purely methodological significance of the report as well as upon the novelty and prospective usefulness of its scheme of quantitative recording. She makes no secret of the limited size of the population studied, its narrow age-range, and its specialized type of environment, and she endeavours to attribute no importance to her results apart from the cases from which they were obtained. It may be remarked however, that a somewhat deceptive impression of validity and stability is given by her free use of statistical terms such as average and correlation. The total population consisted of groups of eight, nine, or twelve cases, and such phraseology is apt to lead a casual reader to make generalizations based upon insufficient data. The book is a stimulating example of painstaking inquiry, but only when such studies have been multiplied a hundredfold will it be possible to attain reasonable certainty that specific behaviour manifestations are above or below the average to be expected at a given stage in a given environment.

French work with abnormal children is associated in England chiefly with the names of Seguin and Binet. This book[2] is a useful reminder of the extensive investigations which have been conducted in France since Binet's day, and of the fruitfulness of continued collaboration between clinicians and teachers. Its interest is principally for clinical workers; but it is of indirect importance for teachers in that it deals with the emotional instability which is a frequent accompaniment of those cases of perplexing failure which cannot be attributed to mere intellectual weakness. It makes no profession of prescribing a cure. It is not a record of the treatment of unstable children, but a careful presentation of their detailed test results, observations on their motor skill and emotional maturity, and reports on their personal and family history.

The population chosen for survey was one of over 1,000 cases of unstable children and adolescents referred to a psychiatric clinic. The patients were sufficiently normal to remain in their homes and in the ordinary background of school and business life; but they showed marked restlessness, lack of normal perseverance and attentiveness, and, at a later stage, inability to remain in one occupation. From the ranks of such children are recruited the dunces, the truants, the tramps, and some of the delinquents.

Illustrative case studies are recorded for eighty-seven individuals, and a careful analysis is then given of the test performance and family history of larger groups, with comparisons with normal developmental stages wherever available evidence renders that possible. Intellectual or motor retardation is reported as less marked than emotional backwardness; and retardation is less characteristic than a lack of harmonious development. The unstable child retains certain babyish attitudes and responses; but his whole mental profile is not that of a baby. His typical curve is a zigzag with weakness in attentiveness and imagination, quite good powers of simple observation and memory, and more or less deficiency in reasoning ability. His interests are childish and at the level of immediate and passing pleasures. His development is irregular, and his power of adaptation to ordinary social demands is low.

The volume as a whole is a scholarly and detailed recording of this irregularity and disharmony. It should prove a useful addition to the clinical material which is being accumulated in many countries through the controlled observation made possible by careful testing at child guidance clinics.

Testing

Interest in objective measurement has been a living issue in the schools since the opening years of this century, when the tests devised and standardized by Binet and Simon began to be employed as a means of discriminating between normal and subnormal pupils. These tests originated in France, but their usefulness was such that translations into other languages were not long delayed.

Dr. Kamat's work[3] gives a detailed account of what is probably their most recent metamorphosis—into the two Indian languages of Kannada and Marathi. The book is interesting to experts as a description of test material suitable for Indian children; but it is also worth reading for its own sake as a simple introduction to the meaning

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and history of individual measurement. The English version is not intended to be used with children whose mother tongue is Indian; but its publication permits comparison between it and other revisions, and the author deserves congratulation upon the detail with which he has recorded the nature and distribution of results from the population of 1,074 Dharwar children upon whose testing the restandardization is based. An appendix gives photographs and brief case studies of eleven mentally deficient pupils from a Bombay school. It is to be regretted that representation was not also given of the pictorial Binet material after its adaptation to Indian form.

Group testing on comparable lines by standardized tests of intelligence or achievement is a more recent development dating from about 1920 after the release of American psychologists from the large-scale testing of army recruits. Its usefulness to administrators and organizers is gradually being realized, and a generation of teachers is arising who are aware of the value of objective information on the performance of their pupils.

This American book on educational measurements in the elementary school[4] is written for such teachers. It is a most lucid and scholarly description of the origins and the present position of standardized testing in reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, art, music, and science, as well as in what is commonly called intelligence. Chapters are devoted to each of the main topics; examples of test material are given; ample bibliographies are appended; and the interest of the reader is stimulated by new-type tests or questionnaires on the contents of each section. Suggestions are offered for the construction of objective tests, and a clear account is given of the uses that may be made of survey tests in each subject as well as of the more detailed tests to which the description "diagnostic" may properly be applied.

The material described is almost exclusively American, but the method of its description is excellent, and the book may be commended as a most useful discussion of the contribution made by the test movement to successful evaluation in the elementary school.

The Nature of Learning

Another of the basic problems of educational psychology is dealt with in this volume[5] which is German in its origins but American in its final form. The psychology of *gestalt* or pattern or structure lays emphasis on the learning which proceeds by understanding or organizing of the whole as opposed to that which may be described as mere summation or aggregation of associated parts. The book is a careful account of experimental work devised and executed in support of the findings of Wertheimer and his school of *gestalt* psychologists.

Experiments were conducted on the learning of complicated card-tricks, the construction of geometrical figures, the memorizing of words and numbers, and the recollection of a theory as to business cycles of prosperity and depression. From the material so obtained, evidence is offered as to the most effective methods of memorizing, the transfer of training, the nature of forgetting and retention, the effect of repetition and of grouping or arranging. For the most part its interest is for professional psychologists; but certain educational implications are of value for teachers, and the findings as a whole are more closely akin to what teachers discover in the complicated learning situations of the class-room than are the somewhat over-simplified explanations which stress memorizing as the typical learning activity rather than understanding or the establishment of relations.

Curriculum Reform

Experimentation within the class-room is perhaps the acid test of the vitality of educational psychology. Such experimentation in three Pennsylvanian secondary schools is the subject of this report.[6]

The form it takes has to be judged against the background of the American school system of credits for short courses in a variety of discrete subjects. To many English teachers it will seem not unusual for a single teacher to have charge of a class for three consecutive years; nor will it seem revolutionary for an attempt to be made to secure continuity of effort and a sense of personal responsibility on the part of the pupils. In the American schools in question it involved a complete departure from ordinary school organization.

For the experimental groups continuity of teacher and of courses was arranged. For control groups the usual procedure of short courses, many teachers, and much testing on segments of subject-matter was continued. The progress of 135 pupils was carefully recorded by objective examinations, and their development was followed from high school to college. Detailed studies of thirteen cases and averages and standard deviations for experimental and control groups indicate superiority for the group experiencing responsibility in learning and continuity of teacher. As a by-product, as might be expected, there is a record of increased interest and growth in professional liveliness on the part of the staff.

Much co-operative effort by large groups of teachers is behind the extensive investigations reported in this most recent publication of the Scottish Council for Research in Education.[7] The volume contains a series of findings upon the placement of topics in arithmetic; the vocabulary of arithmetic; types of errors in the basic number-facts, errors in fractions, the zero in elementary arithmetic, and the relative merits of methods of teaching subtraction. Each report is given in a most detailed and scholarly fashion with full acknowledgment of indebtedness to various American and British sources; but special interest attaches to the first chapter and the last. They will serve as a model for the many investigations which are yet to be undertaken before projected attempts at curriculum reform can be based on a sure foundation of observed evidence.

Curriculum reform to be effective requires more behind it than mere theorizing. It is easy to proclaim that a

The December Number of
THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION
will include:

ARE SECONDARY SCHOOLS A FAILURE?
By Ellis W. Heaton, formerly Headmaster of Tynemouth High School, and latterly Supervisor of Teachers-in-Training at Westminster College and the Institute of Education.

WHAT DO YOU KNOW ABOUT THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION?
By John Graves, M.A.

IN THE CLASS-ROOM. VII: THE YOUNG ADOLESCENT
By Vernon Mallinson.

PRIMARY AND POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION
By Thiselton Mark, D.Lit., M.A., formerly Master of Method in the University of Manchester Day Training College and University Lecturer in Education.

THE HEURISTIC METHOD
By C. J. Woollen.

RESEARCH AND SCHOOL WORK. VI: HANDWRITING
By Dr. C. M. Fleming, University of London Institute of Education.

SOME CHRISTMAS BOOKS
By S. B. Lucas.

THE FUTURE IN EDUCATION
By Professor F. A. Cavenagh, King's College, London.

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favourite topic is essential; but before a fancy can carry conviction it is desirable to prove that pupils will not be injured by any proposed postponements, curtailments, or omissions.

The hope of securing more time earlier for social activities inspired American studies on age-placement, and the same motivation can be detected here. All who are interested in possibilities of curriculum reform will find stimulating material and competent statistical analysis in these chapters on the placement of long and short division and the relative merits of different ways of teaching subtraction.

Less interest attaches to the chapters on the zero in elementary arithmetic and on the types of errors discernible in pupils' responses to the basic number-facts. The former is based upon material obtained at a stage before real familiarity with multiplication and division had been reached. The latter is reminiscent of early analyses of spelling errors with its conclusions based upon the external observation of answers, and its classification into perseverations, doublings, sequences, inversions, and reversals. Teachers are more concerned to know the relationship between what a pupil said and what he wrote than to tabulate the number patterns he produced. It is, however, characteristic of the book as a whole that even in connexion with such comparatively useless analysis an attempt is made to draw inferences for teaching practice. These scholars are obviously also teachers.

The chapter on the vocabulary of arithmetic is important because of its emphasis on the need for care in the use of technical terms, and it is interesting to English readers in its omission of words implying spatial knowledge which would probably have been included in a comparable test south of the border. It is to be regretted that all the chapters did not follow the example of this one in reprinting in full the test used. It may also be remarked that it, like certain of the other investigations, seems unnecessarily dependent upon tests originally devised in other countries for different purposes.

[1] **The Child and his Family.** By Dr. CHARLOTTE BUHLER. With the Collaboration of EDELTRUD BAAR, LOTTE DANZINGER-SCHENK, GERTRUD FALK, SOPHIE GEDEON, GERTRUD HORTNER. Translated by Dr. H. BEAUMONT. (10s. 6d. net. Kegan Paul.)

[2] **L'Enfant et l'Adolescent Instables : Études Cliniques et Psychologiques.** By JADWIGA ABRAMSON. (40 fr. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.)

[3] **Measuring Intelligence of Indian Children.** By Dr. V. V. KAMAT. (6s. net. Oxford University Press.)

[4] **Educational Measurements in the Elementary School.** By Dr. M. E. BROOM. (20s. McGraw-Hill Publishing Co.)

[5] **Organizing and Memorizing: Studies in the Psychology of Learning and Teaching.** By G. KATONA. (23s. 6d. net. New York: Columbia University Press; London: Oxford University Press.)

[6] **An Experiment in Responsible Learning:** A Report to the Carnegie Foundation on Projects in Evaluation of Secondary School Progress, 1929–1938. By W. S. LEARNED and L. R. HAWKINS. (New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Learning.)

[7] **Studies in Arithmetic.** Vol. 2. (Publications of the Scottish Council for Research in Education, 18.) (5s. net. University of London Press.)

Classics

Achilles and the Great Quarrel at Troy

By Dr. W. H. D. ROUSE. (6s. Murray.)

There has never yet been a satisfactory translation of Homer. All our versions vary from the pseudo-archaic "And the great-hearted Odysseus bethought himself in his own mind" and Butler's "And, of course, when you come to a meeting of the Town Council you need a clean shirt". The mere anatomy of the Homeric Greek language and that of modern English are so different that the task of the translator is almost impossible. Dr. Rouse's book is rather a retelling of the story than a translation. The style still varies between the two extremes. For example, "Leave his horses and walk? Not he! But he was doomed never to drive them back again". What Dr. Rouse has tried to do, and successfully, is to produce a version of the Iliad through which the man without Greek can enjoy the story of the Trojan War and of the anger of Achilles; and here indeed, for such a reader, the old Heroes come climbing down out of the Wooden Horse, as shown in the frontispiece by Will Owen. The illustrations, as might be expected, are admirable, though both Zeus and Nestor would probably have something to say about their portraits, the former with thunderbolts.

Education

Little Ann and What to Do with Her

By F. L. COMBS. (3s. Whitcombe & Tombs.)

Little Ann, with her "starveling mind and anxious diligence", seemed to her headmaster to be "a third-rate commodity . . . mentally insignificant". Yet, when she rushed out into the street, eager to exhibit her "good work stamp", and was run over by a car, "her futile life and beautiful death presented him with an enigma which he could not solve". This "common little thing" was a whole universe to two people, and their love for her brought out in them "the only thing in this rather futile world that can be held to be enduringly beautiful". That was in 1940. The author, dipping into the future—1970—sees Little Ann at the age of three entering one of the new Home-and-Neighbourhood Schools. Here, in spite of her mental insignificance, it is discovered that her love of home and her genius for order point to a career for her "in that multifarious and most ambitious calling housewifery". The book is a protest against the exaggerated importance which we are apt to attach to the development of the intellect as compared with the development of the imagination and of the emotions. Education is not mere instruction. "It is taking personality—flesh, blood, and spirit—and so guarding and guiding it that it becomes something finer, stronger, and healthier than life, a rather casual business, would give it a chance to be."

Education on an International Scale: a History of the International Education Board, 1923–1938

By G. W. GRAY. ($2.00. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co.)

In 1923 an International Education Board was founded by John D. Rockefeller, jun., "for the promotion of education throughout the world". The Board was established as a post-war measure, its purpose being to mitigate the impoverishment of educational and other intellectual resources consequent upon the world war. It continued to function until 1938. The story is now published, and it shows a fine record. Fifty-seven universities and research centres were provided with new buildings, equipment, or endowment, and 603 picked individuals were given opportunity of studying under world authorities in their chosen fields. Through grants for these purposes thirty-nine countries, representing Europe, Africa, Asia, Australasia, and the Americas, were aided. And the end of it all? The final pages of the story were written in the last weeks of 1940, with half the world at war. Many of the countries in which the International Education Board found its best opportunities have become dictatorships, or have been forced into the "protective custody" of alien dictators. Of the institutions aided, some are cut off from the international community of thought, their staffs disrupted, their men deflected to war work or scattered afar as refugees. Science, "whose Magna Carta is freedom of thought, of inquiry, and of communication", is in eclipse. But, adds the writer of this history, eclipse is not obliteration. The night may seem murky, beyond hope, but "no star is ever lost". That is the note upon which this well-told story ends.

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History

Prehistory

By Prof. A. V. de Pradenne. Authorized Translation by E. F. Row. (6s. net. Harrap.)

This is a fascinating and authoritative introduction to Prehistory. It is divided into three parts. The first deals with the scope and method of the science of prehistory, defending the science against its critics, and explaining the nature of the data, miscalled 'documents', upon what it bases its generalizations. The second part describes in outline the assured results of research into the prehistory of Western Europe. The third part tentatively applies the European findings to the elucidation of the less fully-explored regions of Africa, Asia, America, and Oceania. An admirable volume, well illustrated.

New Zealand from Tasman to Massey

By N. E. Coad. (6s. 6d. Wellington, N.Z.: H. H. Tombs; London: The British Authors' Press.)

New Zealand this year is celebrating the centenary of its incorporation into the British Empire. Not only in the Dominion itself, but also in Britain and in every part of the Empire, keen interest is shown in the history of its marvellous development within the space of one hundred years. There are many, therefore, who will be glad to possess Miss Coad's excellent text-book that is already recognized as a standard authority in New Zealand itself. It is full of interesting information.

Under Four Tudors: being the Story of Matthew Parker, sometime Archbishop of Canterbury

By Edith W. Perry. (12s. 6d. net. Allen & Unwin.)

This charming book has been a labour of love spread over nearly ten years. Its authoress, an American lady, has ransacked the libraries both of her own country and of Great Britain to gain information concerning the great Elizabethan archbishop and his noble wife, Margaret Harlestone. She has also consulted a vast array of secondary authorities in order to correct her judgment of the men and events of the controversial age in which Parker lived. The result is a volume of first-rate interest and importance. Parker more than any one else determined the character of the Anglican Church as the *via media* between Catholicism and Protestantism. Mrs. Perry vividly describes the conflicts that he waged with extremists on both sides in order to preserve the balanced mean of the desirability and possibility of what he was convinced. Excellent, too, is her summary of the evidence for the regularity of his consecration as bishop, on which the validity of Anglican orders depends. Mrs. Perry's book, however, is much more than an ecclesiastical biography. It is a summary, from a particular point of view, of a crowded and critical half-century of English history.

The Illusion of National Character

By Hamilton Fyfe. (8s. 6d. net. Watts.)

This book can be heartily recommended to all who are prone to take their national greatness for granted. It is a satire and something more. Its purpose is not in the least to defend the nimbus of ideas called up when we use the words National Character; for there are plenty of books, especially at the present time, to do this for us. Mr. Hamilton Fyfe rather debunks the assumptions and uncriticized dogmatisms that we are all guilty of perpetuating.

His method is to take us through the major nations of the world and unmask their conceits with a genial brutality; our own not excluded. In his own words, "What this proves for my present purpose is that nations ready to turn distrust into confidence, respect into suspicion, at the bidding of their rulers, cannot be said to have characters; and that, since all nations are so pliable, the idea of national character is an absurdity".

One need not take this categorical theorem too seriously. There is nothing, indeed, in the whole book, that invalidates the traditional conception of nationality that has come down to us through the Christian centuries—that cultural emphasis that explained the organic division into 'nations' in the universities and the orders. But, for an age that has too long neglected to overhaul and restate its inherited assumptions in these matters, the book was needed.

Spanish Tudor: the Life of Bloody Mary

By H. F. M. Prescott. (18s. net. Constable.)

Mary Tudor was not an attractive character, and her short reign was not a period in English history upon which any one can look back with satisfaction. Hence few writers have been drawn to make her a subject of study, and such biographies of her as have been composed—*e.g.* by Miss Strickland, Mr. R. P. B. Davey, Mr. J. M. Stone, and Miss Beatrice White—are either apologetic or polemical in tone. Mr. Prescott, therefore, as a scientific historian, has had an almost virgin field for his investigations, and he has produced a monograph of outstanding excellence. He has made an exhaustive study of the English Chronicles and State Papers, and he has consulted most of the chief secondary sources. The omission of Froude from his list of authorities is probably intentional, for Froude was highly prejudiced against Mary: the only excuse that he can find for her is that she was insane! Nevertheless, his references to his sources of information are extremely valuable, and no student should fail to avail himself of them.

It cannot be said that Mr. Prescott's well-documented narrative is light reading, for no one could make the story of Mary and her times anything but gloomy and depressing. It is a story of bigotry and failure. But such as it is, Mr. Prescott has told it with striking completeness and impartiality. His book will long remain the standard authority.

Sir Richard Livingstone said . . .

in a recent broadcast, that a community's efficiency will depend on the technical and vocational training of its members—their skill in their various trades, crafts and professions; and its cohesion and stability will depend largely on their social and political education. But the quality of its civilisation depends on its standards, its sense of values, its idea of what is first-rate and what is not.

Sir Richard not only crystallised in words what many teachers feel; he also indicated a possible line of educational development. That talk was one of the many practical broadcasts printed in *The Listener* so that it could be read at leisure and kept for convenient reference.

The Listener

3d EVERY THURSDAY

THE EARS OF THE BUSY TEACHER

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Miscellany

British Life and Thought : An Illustrated Survey

(8s. 6d. net. Published for the British Council by Longmans.)

The Journal of Education for February 1941 included a review of ten pamphlets dealing with British life and thought. These pamphlets, with one other—*British Social Services*, by A. D. K. Owen—are now issued by the British Council, with some revisions and additions, in a single volume. There are five maps, 95 pages of photographs, and an index. The British Council, by issuing these pamphlets and this volume, have done both for British and for foreign readers what Dibelius attempted to do for the German people—to provide a picture of the ideas and ideals of Britain for which, as the Earl of Derby says in a foreword, the British people are ready to die and which, while alive, they will inexorably defend.

Diversions: an Anthology

Selected by C. H. Wilkinson. (3s. 6d. net. Oxford University Press.)

This may be described as a war anthology, for although there is little in it about war, there is much about those things which we in time of war hold doubly dear. There are songs, ballads, and extracts in prose and poetry, some humorous, and some which will not be found in any other collection. Other volumes are to follow.

The Children's Puzzle Book

Edited by M. Adams. (2s. 6d. net. Faber & Faber.)

The title of this book is self-explanatory. It is both entertaining and educational. The puzzles have been specially compiled for boys and girls by a skilful and experienced hand, and should prove welcome in these days when school hours are reduced and time has to be spent in shelters. The compiler has kindly provided solutions at the end of the book, and the reviewer admits with shame that without their help some of the puzzles, so far as he is concerned, would have remained unsolved.

Come Wind, Come Weather

By Daphne du Maurier. (6d. Heinemann.)

This is a book with a lesson for us all. " The real cause of failure in war and in peace, amongst the rich and amongst the poor, is that we put self first." The ten stories in this little book describe the response to the challenge of war of ordinary men and women—a surgeon who learns that his job is not only to cure the body but also to minister to minds diseased ; a small trader who resists the temptation to profiteer ; a miner who found a better way than fighting the management ; a woman with troublesome evacuees on her hands ; Spitfire Megan who forced herself to say " I'm sorry " ; a strike leader who joined hands with a ship owner to settle a strike ; the wife of an army officer who made friends with a " tough crowd "—all these found courage to rise above selfishness and catastrophe. There are two European stories, one from Latvia and one from Finland. " Those men and women who listen to the voice within will ' Constant be ' like the Puritans of old, and, linking hands one with another, will form a chain of steel around this island that no enemy from without can ever break." Miss du Maurier is devoting her royalties from the sale of this book to the Soldiers', Sailors', and Airmen's Families Association. Both for this reason and because of its intrinsic merit, the book deserves the widest possible success.

Land Girl : a Handbook for the Women's Land Army

By W. E. Shewell-Cooper. (1s. net. English Universities Press.)

Lady Denman in her introduction to this useful handbook states that the Women's Land Army, now 10,000 strong, was organized in readiness three months before the war, to counter the blockade. There is a new and urgent demand for volunteers for whom the handbook will supply all necessary information.

Psychology

An Analysis of Performance Test Scores of a representative Group of Scottish Children

By G. H. Thomson. (Publications of the Scottish Council for Research in Education, 16.) (5s. net. University of London Press.)

As stated in the introduction, " the primary purpose of this work was to submit to analysis the data collected for the Scottish Council for Research in Education " from 443 boys and 430 girls born on certain days in the year 1926. The testees were all given a Binet Test and eight performance tests, and these are described in Dr. Macmeeken's volume, *The Intelligence of a Representative Group of Scottish Children* (University of London Press) of which the present book is an outcome. Prof. Godfrey Thomson and his helpers undertook the extensive task of analysing all these results, and right well have they done the work. As regards accuracy, many of the calculations were done twice or oftener and checks were applied to all measures. The correlations dealt with results from Stanford Binet, Seguin Form Board, Mannikin Test, Stutsman Picture Test, Red Riding Test, Healy Picture Completion Test 11, Knox Cube Imitation, Cube Construction Tests, and Koh's Block Design.

The main conclusions are :

(*a*) That Cube Construction correlates best with Binet I.Q. (·55). If Cube Construction, Healy's Picture Completion and Koh's Block Design are combined, the correlation with Binet rises to almost 0·7.

This is, I think, a highly significant result for psychologists and one that should quieten somewhat those who are continually questioning the value of a verbal test as a test of general intelligence as compared with non-verbal tests.

(*b*) Using Thurstone's Centroid Method of Analysis, Prof. Thomson finds that the results give evidence of two factors—the general factor, possibly, but not necessarily to be identified with " g ", and the rhythm or speed factor linking tests 1, 2 and 3.

On this last conclusion readers should consult Prof. Burt's interesting detailed consideration of the factor analysis and its interpretation given in *The British Journal of Educational Psychology*, November, 1940.

Religious Knowledge

Prayers in this Time of National Crisis

(½d., or 3s. 6d. per 100. Oxford University Press.)

A really valuable aid to those whose difficult task it is to conduct prayers in senior, secondary, and junior schools at the present time. The sections are—Faith, Faithfulness, Thanksgiving, and Special Petitions. Each is arranged for responsive worship if desired, and there are collects and suggested readings. The compiler recognizes that adaptation will be necessary in most schools, and has combined clarity with flexibility in a way that makes these suggestions all the more useful.

We regret that the bibliographic details of *The Children's Theatre* were omitted from the foot of the review " English Text-Books " published in our last number. They are : *The Children's Theatre*, edited by C. Swinson, 4 vols. (1s. each, Black.) We regret also that the price of the *John and Joan Story Cards*, published by E. J. Arnold of Leeds, was given in the list " Other New and Forthcoming Educational Publications " as 1d. per packet, instead of 1s. per packet. Messrs. Arnold also inform us that their *Scholarship English Tests*, now published, is priced at 1s. Their *Scholarship Arithmetic Tests* will be of the same size and price.

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SCHOLARSHIPS MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES, FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

WESTFIELD COLLEGE
(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON)

Chairman of Council:
Rt. Hon. Viscount CALDECOTE, C.B.E.

Principal:
Mrs. J. L. STOCKS, B.Sc. (Econ.)

RESIDENTIAL College for 150 women which prepares for the Degrees of the University of London. Non-resident Students are also admitted. At the Scholarship Examination to be held in February, 1941, SCHOLARSHIPS from £100 to £30 will be awarded for CLASSICS, GERMAN, FRENCH, ENGLISH, HISTORY, BOTANY and MATHEMATICS.

Fees.—Residence, £90 a year. Tuition from 38 guineas a year.

For further particulars apply to:

The Registrar,
WESTFIELD COLLEGE,
(University of London)
at ST. PETER'S HALL, OXFORD

ABBOTSHOLME SCHOOL,
DERBYSHIRE

SCHOLARSHIP TESTS. Junior and Senior School. 18th—21st May, 1942. Age limits under 14 and over 8 on September 30, 1941. Five Scholarships offered of values up to 100 Guineas —£75, £60, £30, £30.

ALDENHAM SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys under 14 on May 1, on the results of an examination toward the end of May:

(*a*) An ALFRED SMITH SCHOLARSHIP of £80 a year.

(*b*) Three JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS, of £60 to £40 a year.

(*c*) Two or more EXHIBITIONS of about £30 a year.

INTERNAL SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys already in the School:

(*a*) Two SENIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 a year, open to boys not less than 15 and not more than 17 on May 1.

(*b*) Two JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 to £30 a year, open to all boys in the School.

LEAVING EXHIBITIONS. About three each year, from £80 downward, tenable for three years or more at the Universities.

The School Scholarships are tenable for the duration of the holder's school career.

The School Fees are £115 a year, with a Consolidated Fee of £5 a term to cover all necessary extras.

Further particulars may be had from the HEADMASTER, ALDENHAM SCHOOL, ELSTREE, HERTS.

BERKHAMSTED SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination will be held in December, 1941, for two Entrance Scholarships of the value of £60, and Exhibitions of less amount.

Candidates must be under the age of 14 on December 1 immediately before the examination. The age of candidates will be taken into consideration in the examination.

Entries should be received by November 17. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

BOOTHAM SCHOOL, YORK

EXAMINATION in March for Scholarships of value from £20 to £100. Entries by February 20th. Valuable Leaving Scholarships. Preparation for School and Higher Certificates, 1st M.B., Inter B.Sc., and University Scholarships.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

BRIGHTON COLLEGE

AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

A number of Gill Memorial Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered each June to sons of Officers or Ex-Officers in H.M. Army. The highest of these awards will amount to half the total fees.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in June, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

FELSTED SCHOOL

NINE Scholarships value £100–£30 will be offered for competition in March.

Particulars from the HEADMASTER, Felsted School, Goodrich Court, Ross-on-Wye.

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER, Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

GLENALMOND

ENTRANCE Scholarships, Exhibitions, and Bursaries, 1942. An examination which may be taken at Preparatory Schools will take place on May 25, 26, and 27 for Open Scholarships and Exhibitions and Sons of Clergy Bursaries.

Age limit for Scholarships and Exhibitions: 14 on May 1, 1942. For Bursaries: 15 on September 20. Apply to the WARDEN.

OUNDLE SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June.

For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY
Carlyon Bay, South Cornwall

SEVEN Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

FIFTEEN King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

ONE Milner Memorial Scholarship value £100 per annum for five years, will be offered in June. The Milner Scholarship is open to sons of Colonial Civil Servants and others.

TWO Music Scholarships, value £50 per annum.

For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

KING WILLIAM'S COLLEGE
ISLE OF MAN

SCHOLARSHIP Examination in May. Closing day for entries, May 1. The examination may take place at candidate's School. Ten Scholarships will be offered in 1942, in value from £100 to £50 a year. Also several minor scholarships not exceeding £40 a year available. For particulars apply to the PRINCIPAL, King William's College, Isle of Man.

LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

(*a*) Six SCHOLARSHIPS (at least), Classical and Modern, varying from £100 to £50 per annum, according to merit and needs.

(*b*) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

THE LEYS SCHOOL, CAMBRIDGE
Temporarily removed to the
ATHOLL PALACE HOTEL, PITLOCHRY, PERTHSHIRE

THREE or four Open Foundation Scholarships of £100 a year, and six other Scholarships and Exhibitions of between £25 and £75 a year will be awarded in June, 1942, if suitable candidates of sufficient merit present themselves. Candidates must be under 14 on January 1, 1942. A large choice of subjects in the Final Examination is available, including Science, German, and Music. Scholarships and Exhibitions may in certain cases be increased by such an amount as the circumstances of the Scholar may require. Full particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER.

The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

THE MOUNT SCHOOL FOR GIRLS
YORK

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions will be awarded on the result of an examination to be held in February, 1942.

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss E. Constance Nightingale.

Further Scholarship Announcements overleaf

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SCHOLARSHIPS

MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES, FELLOWSHIPS, EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

LOWTHER COLLEGE FOR GIRLS
Abergele, North Wales

Chairman: Sir RONALD MACLEAY, G.C.M.G.
Headmistress: Miss K. I. SAYERS, M.A., Cantab.

A SCHOLARSHIP Examination for Junior, Senior and Music Entrance Scholarships will be held on March 2, 3, and 4, 1942. Normal inclusive fees, £144 p.a.: maximum Scholarship, £80 p.a. Entries close February 11. For full particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS M.A. (Cantab.).

MALVERN COLLEGE

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held early in March, 1942. Up to five Scholarships of £100 and three or more of £50. A number of Exhibitions and Bursarships also will be offered to boys of all-round ability.

Candidates may take the Examination at their Preparatory Schools or at Malvern.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEADMASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in September.

ROYAL HOLLOWAY COLLEGE
(University of London)

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

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NOTES AND COMMENTS

OUR last issue was in great part devoted to the question of teaching American history in British schools. A still wider question exercises the minds of teachers of history in both countries, *viz.* the spirit in which any history should be taught. In all such teaching there lurks the danger of overstepping the line between patriotism and jingoism. Perhaps it is partly their consciousness of this difficulty that has led American educators to elevate social studies to the rank of a definite objective in teaching, a tendency which is exemplified in the periodical called *The Social Studies*, meant for teachers and administrators. The articles in the October number of this periodical all tend toward a dispassionate teaching of history. A practical suggestion for overcoming the difficulty here referred to has recently been thrown out by Dr. Gilbert Murray. " It is not at all impossible," he says, " to obtain in the main problems of history a consensus of competent historians. Even between French and German historians on the history of the present century such a consensus had been practically achieved by the time the Hitler Government broke off the negotiations. If such a ' consensus of the competent ' could be obtained, it would become difficult for the government of any country to teach its youth notorious falsehoods or to represent things grossly out of proportion." We may hope that in future British and American text-books, at least, will cease to give one-sided accounts of events in which both countries were involved.

The Teaching of History.

DR. NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, in a recent address, took as his theme a famous formula, now temporarily disowned in the land of its origin—Liberty, Equality, Fraternity. Hegel, he reminds us, was the author of the statement that history is the history of liberty, and now the Italian Croce has elaborated this idea in his *History as the Story of Liberty*, which was reviewed in our June number. No word, says Dr. Butler, unless it be the word democracy, is used so carelessly and often with so little understanding as the word liberty. Lovers of liberty are faced by two dangers, despotism on the one hand, and licence on the other. As to the latter, he frankly confesses the sins of the great democracies, including his own country. Equality, again, he points out, may be so interpreted as to be " wholly out of consonance with liberty ", as indeed Sir J. Fitzjames Stephen cogently argued long ago. Next, it is fraternity which " learns the lessons that liberty and equality have to teach ", and characterizes a social order " made up of civilized human beings who will not willingly let their fellow men suffer or be in want ". Fraternity, too, insists that an economic nationalism which promotes world competition and world war, must give way to " that international trade system which great seers like Adam Smith and Richard Cobden, Bright and Gladstone, long ago saw to be as necessary as it is sound ". We hope that this address, packed with grave reflection and sound sense, will be widely read on this side of the Atlantic.

Liberty, Equality, Fraternity.

MR. BUTLER has now authorized the publication of a short statement indicating the major subjects and questions covered by the confidential memorandum which was circulated to local authorities and to teachers' organizations last June. The main topics covered by the memorandum are: the raising of the school age with or without exemptions; the redefining of elementary education and the effect of such redefinition upon the powers and areas of local education authorities; secondary education as a duty and not only as a power as at present; the administration of all schools in the secondary stage under one code of regulations, and the abolition of fees; the proper age for the distribution and possible redistribution of children to the different types of secondary schools; the development of the service of youth; the need for an extended system of technical, commercial, and art training, and for establishing closer relations between education and industry; the need for a unified system of aid to enable

The Confidential Memorandum.

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students to proceed to the universities; methods of improving the school medical service, including the provision of nursery schools and classes, and the provision of meals; the methods of recruitment and training for the teaching profession; the dual system; the remuneration of teachers; methods of payment of grant. The publication of this summary will no doubt give rise to an increased demand for the complete document.

School Examinations.

IT has been noted that on the Committee which has recently been appointed to consider the question of secondary school curricula, the bodies which examine for School Certificates are represented. In present circumstances this is entirely as it should be, since, whatever new order may be in contemplation, the passage to it will need to take full account of the facts and influences of the existing régime. As we said in our last number, some misgiving has been expressed that the composition of the Committee may be such as to hinder that comprehensive and thoroughly objective survey of the whole situation which is so urgently needed. To approach the task with any uncritical prejudice in favour of external examinations just because they have been a rule up to the present may well prove disastrous. We do not share the views about external examinations expressed in Mr. Heaton's article in this number. On the contrary we believe that the time has come when it should be recognized that secondary schools are now as competent to assess their own product in their own field as the universities are to assess theirs. There is little danger that, granted freedom of handling curricula, the schools would run wild. The danger seems to be rather the other way, of a certain conservatism and lack of adventurousness. If, as is possible, the single school did not care to assume the whole responsibility, some system of check on its assessments could be devised. We ought, however, to recognize that standards live and operate much more vitally in the mind and conscience of the experienced teacher than in any allocation of marks by an external examiner, however ingenious may be the statistical devices by which these are checked.

Cultural Guidance.

THE effort to reconsider secondary school curricula emphasizes a problem to which all too little attention has been given, though it lies at the heart of all our thoughts about education and even, perhaps, of our national destiny itself. If, as is widely held, an effective curriculum is the substance of a culture, set in order and endowed with dynamic for teaching purposes, what are the real nature and content of the culture upon which we must now draw? It is part of our present frustration that no clear answer can be given. Two reasons may be suggested to account for this predicament. In the first place, our Western culture is in a state of transition from a basis in an older 'natural' economy to a basis in a new 'machine' order, the true lineaments and social effects of which we do not yet clearly discern. So bewilderment and double-mindedness such as we are now experiencing are not surprising. In the second place, a strong sense of a common culture and a lively understanding of its nature and essence appear to be possible only in a community that is imbued with a deep and universally-shared consciousness of a common purpose. Periclean Greece and Elizabethan England come to mind as examples. It can hardly be said that England is in that condition now, apart from the immediate overmastering purpose of winning the war. We can only hope that all that we are bearing in the course of it may have value for us in lighting up the dark places, and making more obvious to us the common lines of effort and inspiration upon which we can unite for the tasks which will face us when the war is over.

Inspiration plus Administration.

DOUBT and misgiving arising from cultural confusion express themselves everywhere in the educational field, especially in discussions on the vexed question whether there really is a sharp line between 'general' and 'vocational' education. It would be well if more attention were given to what is said on this matter in the first chapter of the Spens Report. We hope that the Norwood Committee on secondary curricula will not make up its mind on this great matter until it has faced squarely the cultural crisis and taken a fully-considered attitude towards it. One pitfall to be avoided is that into which so many are slipping—that of determining all their thought upon reconstruction from the standpoint of the existing administrative order. Reconstruction then becomes a spanner-and-oil-can affair, a mere reconditioning of the machine. We may have to realize that what has been happening on the Continent in recent years in the imposition of a cultural order by state authority is a response to an inescapable demand. If with our traditions we must reject that kind of response, that should not blind us to the reality and urgency of the demand. Rather does it impose upon us the obligation of finding a form of response that both meets our need and satisfies our ideals. It does seem therefore that to existing administrative control we shall have to bring a much more conscious sense of the need for cultural control. How to achieve this through a free school in a free society is the form of our problem. Upon the solution of it we are entitled to look for some guidance to the Norwood Committee.

Universities and Training Colleges.

AT a recent meeting of the Training College Association some expression was given to the view that a much closer and more organic relation between the colleges and the universities was desirable. There is abundant evidence that few would favour a return from the present group system, whereby colleges and universities cooperate in framing curricula and conducting examinations, to the older plan where this work was done by the Board. The tendency is rather the other way, to urge that much more progress could be made along the same road. Opinion may well

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be divided on the question whether ultimately all teachers should hold a university degree. The result of such a requirement might be either to bring down university standards considerably, or to exclude many who, in the right conditions, would prove good teachers —or both these results! Surely much can be done short of this. There is scope for much cross-fertilization both ways, in the university resources in scholarship and experience of standards on the one side, and in the technical achievement and close contact with social actuality of the colleges on the other hand. There is already a useful link, the further possibilities of which might be explored, in the university training departments. As they realize increasingly a common interest with the training colleges, so we hope they will seize the opportunity that is provided by this advantageous intermediate position, and give a lead in achieving that closer co-ordination and richer interchange which are certainly desirable, and, as we believe, quite possible.

Educational Research.

ONE very obvious result of the torrents of discussion about educational research is a growing sense of the urgent need for more exact and well-ordered knowledge of the bases and conditions of our educational task. It is to be hoped that the rise of this feeling will not result in something less than justice being done to steadfast but little-recognized groups and individuals who have long ago realized the need and have done what they could with pitifully limited resources to meet it.

Should not the whole matter be now lifted to its proper plane of organized national action? Some waste and frustration of effort may be avoided if we can shed a little of the current amateurism, and arm ourselves with more of that systematic, well-tested professional knowledge that we still need. A Board of Education that has itself made a substantial contribution in the form of its admirable pamphlets might now give a stronger lead than it has yet done. Though most of us know something of the great organizations that have been built up for this purpose in the United States, it is not generally known that the four Dominions, as well as Scotland, have now well-established and fully-accepted Research Councils. No doubt we shall go about the job in our own peculiar way, but can we safely continue to lag so far behind the achievements of countries with whom we shall now be more closely associated than ever in the undertakings that lie ahead?

Pre-Medical Education.

THE Warden of Radley has raised the question of the preliminary scientific education of future doctors. To give the teaching of chemistry, physics, and biology in our public schools a medical bias would be against sound tradition. The medical schools, including those of Oxford and Cambridge, welcome students who have completed their preliminary scientific studies at school. Some forty years ago there was an unsuccessful attempt to discontinue these studies in the London medical schools, and to concentrate the work in a special school to be established at South Kensington. The struggle between general and technical education is not peculiar to medicine. Its acuteness is due to great increase of knowledge contrasting with small increase in the span of human life. A general qualification in medicine may soon become an anachronism; but the physician, engaged in general or in specialist practice, will always require a good general education and a thorough training in scientific method. The Royal College of Physicians has appointed a committee to survey the present state of medical education. The President of the College in a letter to *The Times* observes that " it is easy to teach a set of facts, more difficult to persuade the student to use his reason ". This is the fundamental issue.

Ages of Transference.

THE time and manner of a child's transference from a junior to a higher school are matters of vital concern to every intelligent parent in the land, and they are matters upon which complete agreement has not yet been reached. Dr. F. Spencer declares that the age of 11 was chosen for administrative reasons. Assuming a leaving age of 15, the Consultative Committee reckoned that 7 to 11 would give four years to the junior school, and 11 to 15 a like period to the senior school. It only remained, he avers, for the psychologists to discover that children suddenly turned into adolescents at 11. However that may be, it is clear that no one, whether psychologist or teacher or parent or administrator, is satisfied with the present arrangement. The element of prophecy involved is too risky, and the danger of turning part of the junior school into a cramming establishment is too great. The October number of *The New Era* reports a conference presided over by Professor F. Clarke which advocated three stages of school life, a nursery-infant stage from 2 to 7 or 8, a primary stage from 7 or 8 to 12 or 13, and a secondary stage from 12 or 13 onwards. It was felt that after the age of 11 there should be, to use Professor Clarke's phrase, " an exploratory period " of about two years, and that the catastrophic type of selection by a single examination should be abolished.

Religious Education in London Schools.

A REPORT on religious education, drawn up for the information of the London County Council by the Council's Chief Inspector of Schools, has been printed and circulated, so that all London teachers may have the opportunity of reading it. We gladly draw attention to the report, not only because of its scrupulous impartiality, but also because the writer is in a unique position for ascertaining the facts. In his judgment the subject is on the whole taught in accordance with the regulations, and in most cases is undertaken sympathetically and conscientiously, more than " the letter of the law " being observed. Though he does not suggest that there is no room for improvement, he is clear that the evidence does not support allegations sometimes made of " pagan instruction " or of " Godless council schools ". He reminds the Council that neither the Church nor the home should " expect the school to do everything ". All three " have their duties and

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responsibilities in this matter, and success is best achieved by co-operation ".

The Universities.

OXFORD is continuing its work " with a measurable likeness to normality ", to quote the retiring Vice-Chancellor, Dr. G. S. Gordon. The life of the University during the past year, he said, had been " sober, cheerful, and resolute ". His successor is the Provost of Oriel, Sir W. D. Ross. 2,059 men and 814 woman undergraduates are in residence. At Cambridge, Lord Baldwin, the Chancellor, conferred the law doctorate on the King of Greece. The university of Byron appropriately honoured the leader of the heroic nation he helped to liberate. The Metropolitan University is still *in partibus*. Convocation may meet in May when Canon Douglas's term of office as chairman would normally expire. The London School of Oriental and African Languages has taken possession of part of its new premises on the Bloomsbury site, an unpretentious brick building in the shadow of Holden's stone tower. Despite war conditions, reports from other universities and university colleges are encouraging.

Public Libraries and the War.

THE annual report of the Libraries and Arts Committee of the Leeds City Council brings out some points which are probably typical and therefore of more than local interest. From September, 1939 to March, 1940 book issues diminished considerably. The fear, however, that the libraries had to face lean years was happily not justified. " It was a welcome surprise in 1940–41 to note month by month a steady influx of new borrowers, eager to find relaxation in reading, and the many demands on the service to provide technical books of assistance in the war effort ". Increased use of the libraries, it is noted, was made by children as well as by adults, after the children began to return to the city. The tabulated statement of book issues suggests to us some interesting points, one of which is that works of fiction, including juvenile fiction, account for nearly 80 per cent of the total circulation. It would, we are convinced, be a great mistake to regard this fact as a disappointing result of popular education. Novels lend themselves to more rapid reading than more serious books ; and temporary escape from daily routine into a world of imagination is a joyous relief at all times, but never more so than during these years of constant stress and strain. Moreover, any library which is competently managed does its best to exclude the pernicious and the trashy from its shelves.

Magistrates and Juvenile Delinquency.

IN addressing the annual meeting of the Magistrates' Association Mr. Osbert Peake said that we should not take too tragic a view of the increase in the number of offences committed by young people. These young people should receive treatment calculated to check their lawlessness and to divert their energies into satisfactory channels, and this was where the Juvenile Court came in. The task of justices was not made easier by the acute shortage of accommodation in Remand Homes and in Approved Schools, but efforts were being made to improve the situation. The detention of many young persons in Approved Schools, and of many adult offenders in prison, would be unnecessary if in every area there were a well-organized and efficient probation system, and if the justices made wise use of it. This system was just as valuable for adult offenders as for juveniles. Experience had shown that sending offenders to prison for short periods was often harmful to the individual and generally a failure as a method of punishment, as well as economically wasteful. Most people, magistrates included, will agree that these remarks were both wise and timely.

Shortage of Teacher Candidates.

AT a recent meeting of the Executive Committee of the Association of Education Committees the secretary submitted information supplied by the Board of Education regarding the shortage of candidates for the teaching profession. From this it appears that, while in 1938 there were 921 men in training departments, this number had shrunk to 631 in 1940, and the forecast for 1941 is 550. In training colleges there were 1,390 men in 1938 and 1,254 in 1940, the forecast for 1941 being 573. Thus, in relation to 1938, there is this year a drop of 40 per cent in training departments and of 59 per cent in training colleges. For women the figures are less startling, training departments even showing a gain of 3 per cent, while training colleges show a loss of 15 per cent. The demands of the armed forces are mainly responsible for this situation, which threatens to become even more serious as time goes on. We hope that, while effort for victory must remain the paramount consideration, the importance of securing a sufficient supply of competent and well-qualified teachers will not be overlooked. We fear that the inadequate proposals regarding war bonus will scarcely be an aid to recruitment for the profession.

Nursery Centres in Wales.

THE nursery school idea has 'caught on' slowly enough in England—but much more slowly in Wales. These days of war, however, have brought a fuller realization of the value of the nursery centres. In the new year Wales is planning a generous provision of short courses for training teachers and helpers for work in these centres. It is said that women of " a motherly type " will be appointed for these courses, but that they will be selected " with regard to as high an educational standard as possible ". When the findings on evacuation, on school meals, and on the Kitchen Front Campaign come to be set out, it may well be that one of the main recommendations will be the need for educating all young women—and young men—in family responsibilities. The nursery centre, if the staff is properly qualified, will provide an excellent training ground.

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THE SCIENTIFIC VIEW OF EDUCATION AS A SOCIAL FUNCTION*

By Dr. JULIAN S. HUXLEY, F.R.S.

IN addition to our considering the scientific content of education, general or special, education must be surveyed and analysed scientifically, as a function of social life, just as respiration or digestion are surveyed and analysed as functions of the animal organism. Such a scientific survey of education and of the degree to which it is falling short of performing its social function adequately, is one prerequisite for future world order.

Education has various social sub-functions—the general reproductive, in handing on existing tradition, language, elementary skills, &c.; the evolutionary, in modifying these traditions and skills; the normative, in setting standards of behaviour; the specialized, in training limited minorities, whether professional or governing *élites*.

Mr. Wells has pointed out one feature of education in the past—that it was confined to a small minority. We might add that its normative influence was exerted in favour of traditional orthodoxies of belief and behaviour, and that its conscious evolutionary function was almost or wholly nil.

The chief changes in the immediate past have been (1) an increased emphasis upon evolutionary or change-promoting functions, together with a decreased concern with the past, and an increased concern with the realization of ideal but scientifically-determined standards in the future; (2) an incipient concern in the normative sphere with the encouragement of the scientific attitude and the habit of thinking for oneself, as against implicit acceptance of traditional myths and orthodox morals; (3) the extension of more and better education to more of the people, but with the retention, in this country, of a dualistic class-system of education; (4) the development of a deliberately secular state educational system in this country, side by side with a denominational system.

At the present moment, those concerned with the social function of education are envisaging certain further changes as desirable: (1) the unification of the general educational system, both as regards its class aspect and its ideological (religious-secularist) aspect; (2) the tapping and training of the large reservoirs of unutilized brain-power in the less wealthy sections of the community, both by an extension of general education and by increased facilities for specialized secondary and university education for a selected minority; (3) the provision of facilities for training the new potential *élites*, of the airman and skilled mechanic type, which the change in our class-structure is throwing up; (4) the need for enlisting education to help in providing a high degree of social stimulation and social self-consciousness, as the basis of a modern democratic but well-integrated society; (5) the need for linking national educational systems with some common basis for world education.

These two last needs have arisen more or less simultaneously, and it is clearly easy for them to develop in antagonism. One of the jobs of the scientist is to help in seeing that they shall develop co-operatively, and that a strong local cultural self-determination and self-awareness shall co-exist with increased facilities for world self-awareness and for rapidity of exchange of ideas on a world scale.

This can be promoted in various ways: (1) by better scientific education, and the introduction of quantitative ideas wherever possible; (2) by the encouragement of an international auxiliary language and the mechanical aids to the interchange of ideas mentioned by Mr. Wells; (3) by the abandonment of the pretended universalism of the classical type of upper-class education in favour of a relativist system, *i.e.* one related to the social needs of the particular society at the particular time, but given a universal basis by being further related to the common but evolving ideas and standards derived from a scientific humanism; (4) by the deliberate fostering of cultural activities (art, drama, architecture, &c.) by the State, which would be best accomplished by a combination of some of the W.P.A. methods adopted in the United States with certain methods of mass cultural education and specialized cultural training developed in the U.S.S.R.

One danger we must beware of is the reaction of threatened interests. It is a well-known fact that they tend to resist the reduction or extinction of their influence with the utmost vigour. The most obvious case of this at the present moment is the attempt of the churches to extend their influence in general education, in the form of disguised tests for teachers, and in obtaining more of a foothold for orthodox Christianity in secular education.

This brings me to a general point, namely the extreme importance of avoiding a cleavage between education and the outside world. For instance, it is hopeless to expect aesthetic values instilled at school to have much influence save on an exceptional minority so long as the world outside school is dominated by ugliness and the crudest commercial motives. That is why adult education and the general culture of society are important to the educationist in the narrow sense. But, if the outside world must be related to the educational system as well as vice versa, it is equally important to avoid introducing into the educational system any features which are wholly out of touch with the standards and ideas of society in general. It appears to be a fact that the majority, probably the considerable majority, of our population are indifferent to orthodox Christianity in any of its forms. That being so, the introduction of compulsory religious worship or teaching into the schools along the lines demanded by the churches will not only defeat its own ends, since the average child immediately detects unreality, but will also damage the general educational system in the process, since unreality in one school subject tends to infect the child's ideas about other subjects. There is also a secondary point, namely the sectarian cleavage between the various Christian denominations. The proposed invasion of our school system by Christian orthodoxy will thus represent a body of educational influence to be shared out like so much booty between the competing sects. This again will hinder the attainment of a properly unified educational system.

So far, I have been considering the social function of education from the angle of society as a whole; it can however, also be considered from the opposite end, from the angle of the individual citizens whom the educational system is training and developing. In this sphere, science has made a major contribution, in the shape of the recent discoveries about so-called 'deep' psychology, notably those concerning the unconscious mind and the effects of repression. Man is the only organism habitually subjected to mental conflict; and repression is the adaptive device for securing that conflict in the early years of life, when reason and experience are lacking to deal with it, shall not have disastrous effects.

However, the persistence of the infantile type of repression into adult life has several disadvantages—notably first the immobilizing of a considerable amount of so-called mental energy, deadlocked between the repressing and repressed impulses, and secondly the distortion of the repressing forces, as in the typical primitive super-ego, so as to issue in various forms of unconstructive and intolerant prohibitions or even destructive sadism or violence, or in the sterile self-violation of excessive Puritanism or asceticism.

Thus in one sense the most important single task of education is not an intellectual but a moral and emotional

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one—the modification of rigorous all-or-none repression, and the substitution for it wherever possible of conscious suppression in the light of tolerance and reason.

Once again, this problem can only be adequately attacked from both sides at once. If social conditions are such as to generate frustration and fear, or their opposite over-compensations, intolerant arrogance and brutality, no improvement in education will be of much avail. Hence the importance of all the measures already discussed at this Conference, aimed at increasing stability, security, and freedom from the threats of ill-health, poverty, and war.

On the educational side, proper education of parents is one prime essential, to ensure that they shall not encourage and intensify the normal infantile repressions instead of the reverse. Then, in the school, it has been found that, for the young child the encouragement of free self-expression through whatever medium turns out to be suitable to the individual case, whether painting, story telling and writing, or constructive games, is of great help in the majority of cases. A second psychological crisis comes in adolescence. In general, the adolescent tends to suffer from an inferiority complex, which can only be purged away by providing him (or her) with suitable outlets for self-expression and, above all, by making him feel useful. On this latter point, the organization of Youth Service Corps and Youth Training Schemes will be very valuable.

There is also a special point. Many of the most socially desirable types, potentially capable of intellectual, social, or political leadership, are more or less sterilized, psychologically speaking, in adolescence because of undue sensitiveness, which accentuates the normal adolescent complex. A rich supply of these types is urgently needed to offset the influence of those who, by virtue of undesirable qualities like insensitiveness, blatancy, and pushing, arrive much more automatically in positions of influence. Some experiments on this problem of giving balance and self-confidence to the gifted but sensitive adolescent have already been carried out, such as the County Badge training scheme; and from these pioneer attempts it is at least already clear that bodily, as well as intellectual and moral, self-confidence is essential. But a great deal of research and experiment is still needed if education is to be successful in its important function of finding, training, and equipping an *élite* worthy of the name.

In conclusion, I would emphasize that none of these problems can be satisfactorily solved if we continue to rely on orthodoxy and tradition, with our faces turned towards the past. Only the scientific method, of adequate survey and proper delimitation of goals, together with continuous research and experiment, will avail.

* We are grateful to Dr. Huxley for allowing this paper to be published in *The Journal of Education*. It was to have been read at the meeting of the British Association on September 28, but Dr. Huxley was asked instead to summarize the general results of the whole Conference. It will, however, appear in the published proceedings of the Conference—ED.

ARE SECONDARY SCHOOLS A FAILURE?

By ELLIS W. HEATON, formerly Headmaster of Tynemouth High School, and later a Supervisor of Teachers-in-Training at Westminster College and the Institute of Education

A SMALL book which no teacher should miss is Sir Richard Livingstone's *The Future in Education* (C.U.P. 3s. 6d.). In it Sir Richard deals chiefly with adult education, but in a postscript of 18 pages he draws attention to what he considers are grave defects in our secondary schools. Whilst he is in favour of the school-leaving age in senior primary schools being raised to 15 on the grounds that a longer period of discipline and guidance is something with which we can ill dispense, he is definitely opposed to 'secondary education for all'. His solution for the great mass of our young folk from 15 to 18 is part-time continuation schools, but he pleads for a stronger element of cultural studies than vocational schools provide.

Sir Richard has come to the conclusion that our secondary education is a "fortuitous jungle" that needs clearing, "an amazing and chaotic thing", full of "inert ideas", which are "plastered" on the pupils' minds. He avers that "children are taught but not educated". A black picture, indeed! One wonders how Sir Richard has reached such a pessimistic conclusion, since he left schoolmastering as long ago as 1918. His strictures reveal very little first-hand knowledge of the internal problems and ideals of secondary schools.

My readers will recall that as far back as 1926 "William Clissold" held many similar views, but was more drastic than Sir Richard in his remedies. He had no desire to improve secondary schools; rather he longed to see them dwindle to vanishing point. After the elementary stage at 15, children should be drafted to vocational schools with laboratories, workshops, and studios, but no class-rooms. "The idea of education needs to be divorced from the office of schoolmastering," he said.

Heads of secondary schools and their colleagues are very much alive to the problems of their work and no one is more keen to remove deficiencies, not even inspectors. Indeed, one of the most promising facts of to-day is the hearty co-operation of heads of schools and the inspectorate in passing on from school to school fertilizing ideas and reports of valuable experiments. I wish that Sir Richard and "Clissold" could together attend half a dozen full inspections in town and country schools. Their views would be exhilarating, since Sir Richard is a great classical scholar and Clissold was trained at one of the best science colleges in this country. Clissold looked forward to the day when the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge will be kept clean and empty for tourists to visit, whereas Sir Richard is President of an Oxford College.

Every specialist is in danger of over-specializing and of seeing only one side of a greater whole. One is reminded of the story of a famous astronomer who invited a friend to look through his great telescope and marvel at what it revealed. His friend did so, but went on to remark, "Yes, but what a lot your telescope shuts out!"

The specific charges against secondary schools are mainly directed against (*a*) teachers, (*b*) the curriculum, and (*c*) examinations. It will make for clearness if we look at each in turn.

(a) *Secondary School Teachers*

Sir Richard agrees with the creator of "Mr. Chips" that the influence of a cultured and liberal-minded teacher is of the first importance. According to some of our critics, this is just where secondary schools fail. Clissold had a very poor opinion of secondary teachers as a class, but then he had a low opinion of professional men generally. Schoolmastering he thought reduced teachers to the mentality of "residual" men. "I don't want to improve the teacher, I want him to get out of the way of the path of civilization."

Where headmasters are given the right of choosing their colleagues, subject to confirmation by the Governors, 'residual' men have small chance of being appointed. Any that get past the Head are sure to be found out by H.M. Inspector on his routine visits or, at latest, in a full inspection.

No, Mr. Clissold, the number of residual men on any secondary school staff is small.

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The plain fact is that in no other type of school is the teaching more thorough and competent, enlightened and interesting; and the standard of integrity and personal character is high.

Secondary teachers welcome new light and inspiration from whatever source and do not shrink from wholesome self-criticism. No class of the community reads more widely, and none read Wells with greater avidity, albeit with discrimination. Any one who follows the activities of summer schools and the annual conferences, such as those of the Science Masters' Association and the Historical Association, to mention only two among many, will discover that secondary school teachers are most eager to keep pace with the times and to seek constructive criticism.

(b) *The Curriculum in Secondary Schools*

It is on the curriculum that the severest criticism falls. It has some justification, but it fails by exaggeration and a lack of interior knowledge of the work in schools. The curriculum *is* crowded, and one of the chief anxieties of the Head is so to frame his time-table that strain is avoided. But the fact that there are twenty subjects on the time-table gives by itself an erroneous impression. The truth is that no pupil, not even the brightest, takes more than nine; the usual number is eight, and in some schools (my own included) the number was seven.

One of the Head's greatest problems is to keep homework down to a minimum. His very difficulties on this score arise out of the eagerness of teachers in their work, mostly from conscientiousness and occasionally from ambition. No teacher sets more homework than he can help, because of the drudgery of marking and the lack of time in which to mark the work adequately. Individual colleagues are apt to forget, however, that the pupil has to do work for five or six other masters, all equally keen.

Sir Richard affirms that the result is intellectual dyspepsia and a distaste for schooling and culture. There is such a danger and Heads are alive to it. Yet he goes on to advocate the addition of Greek—in translations—and a study of the Stoics to the already long list of subjects. Moreover, whilst he feels strongly that the study of history and literature cannot be fruitful until after school days, he realizes that they cannot be left out of the school curriculum at the adolescent stage, for he wants pupils in their teens to store up facts of history and literature, and grasp something of great characters. He says that Latin, science, and geography are destitute of the essential vitamins of a good education. Yet he concedes that they, together with mathematics and foreign languages, can be useful as 'keep-fit' exercises for the brain, developing the power to argue, to weigh evidence, and to marshal facts. To do this successfully is no mean achievement! (The chief mistake of our critics is to expect the harvest even before spring is well over.)

The curriculum of secondary schools under Government inspection is set out in regulations, to which schools must work. Presumably the Board of Education has had the help and advice of competent representatives of every type of higher education and the members of the inspectorate. The syllabus is grouped under four headings: (*a*) English Subjects; (*b*) Foreign Languages; (*c*) Mathematics and Science; (*d*) Music, Art, Handicrafts, and Domestic Science; and pupils are expected to take subjects from each group and to pass a reasonable test after a five years' course, at which time about 70 per cent of the pupils leave. Bright pupils can with comfort take this test at the end of four years, and all but a few can compass it by the end of the fifth year. A pupil can pass on as low a total as five subjects, three of which are specified by group. There is no need for the cramming and forcible-feeding to which we, as well as our critics, strongly object. One subject from each of two of the groups (*a*) (*b*) and (*c*) must be taken; all other subjects are optional. This secures the reasonable *balance* between humanistic and scientific studies that Sir Richard desires. The analysis of any individual pupil's time-table would reveal this. There surely is nothing of "chaos" or "lack of co-ordination" in all this.

I grant that a cursory glance at the school time-table with its twenty subjects and its provision for each set of pupils to go to some half a dozen specialists, together with arranging for the practical necessity that no two forms shall be in the same room at the same time, is calculated to mystify the casual visitor and to create an illusory feeling of 'chaos'. It *is* illusory, however, as the smooth running of the complex machine proves. Moreover, the change from subject to subject gives relief and variety to the pupil who passes from subjects for which he has no special liking to others in which he is keenly interested, from one subject in which he is sedentary to another in which he is active. The variety gives both healthy discipline and delight in work, and each has its part in a sound education.

The life of a secondary school is strenuous. The pupils are 'in training'. The cases of strain are few and easily explained. The health and brightness of the pupils in our secondary schools do not lend support to the idea that they are oppressed with 'inert ideas' or are examination-ridden. The cases of strain can be detected early and provided against in these days of medical inspection and after-care. They occur chiefly among girls who are over-conscientious; the average boy shows a healthy resistance to mental over-strain and can invent ways of avoiding it.

Early in my headmastership I found that by reducing the subjects taken in the Lower and Upper Fifth, and allowing the pupils to choose one or other of a group of parallel sets built up of *co-ordinated* subjects (three in number)—a professional set, a scientific set, a technical set, a domestic set, and so on—we not only saved pupils from developing a distaste for school but, incidentally, helped to mitigate the toll of homework demanded, and allowed pupils adequate time to grasp any subject taken. I kept careful statistics over a period of years and found that the percentage of passes in school certificate scripts was 68 in compulsory subjects and 93 in optional subjects.

At the post-certificate stage (Form VI), for which only some 25 to 30 per cent of the scholars remain, pupils begin to specialize along the line of their aptitudes. Those reading for university scholarships are almost bound to over-specialize, but the schools cannot alter this—the remedy lies nearer Sir Richard's door. All other pupils should specialize in one (certainly not more than two) subjects, and take a number of ancillary subjects. This would provide a co-ordinated course and save narrowness of outlook. If a few periods a week could be given to recreative subjects, like popular science talks to 'humanistic' students, cultural studies of a broadening quality to science students, and art appreciation and musical treats to all, so much the better.

Experience proves that a secondary school, well staffed and organized, can be a happy, industrious hive, free from chaos, wisely co-ordinated, and taking *in its stride* the appointed examination. By allowing pupils to have some say in their education, through choice of optional groups suited to their tastes and aptitudes and likely to help them in the careers to which they look forward when school days are over, the work of a school can achieve the double aim of fitting them for life and for livelihood.

(c) *The 'bane' of Examinations*

Most of our critics blame examinations for the strain in secondary schools and insist that they cramp the curriculum, obsess the teacher, and overwork the pupil. There is a modicum of truth in this, in so far as it applies to over-anxious pupils, urged on by ambitious parents and over-eager teachers. Teachers should heed the warning.

Every wise teacher examines his pupils at intervals in order to test his own success and his pupils' progress. If done too often (say weekly) it becomes progressively harassing to the pupil and proportionately less valuable.

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Examinations should be to the teacher what stock-taking is to a business man. Clissold's big-business man would never think of going on year after year without an annual audit by a thoroughly competent outside accountant. All that the Board of Education demands is one such audit at the end of five years. It is definitely healthy for both teacher and pupil to submit to such a test, and to receive a well-considered report on it. It saves the teacher from getting into a rut and upsets crafty pupils who, knowing their teacher's idiosyncrasies, acquire an uncanny way of guessing beforehand the questions he is likely to set. The problem is to secure a fair and genuine test and a helpful report, and it has been for all practical purposes solved by the School Certificate Examination. The various Boards include a high proportion of secondary teachers, both heads and assistants. They frame syllabuses, appoint examiners, and jointly carry out the examinations in the normal conditions of the pupils' own school. The teachers have themselves to blame if the syllabus is overloaded, as it is apt to be when teachers are keen and enterprising and forgetful that the pupil is examined in five or six other subjects beside their own. Moreover, teachers can, if the result is widely considered unfair, meet the examiners in conference and have their grievances put right. In the Durham Schools Examinations, every teacher who presents pupils is entitled to attend such ' subject ' conferences. Then, too, schools can, for a small extra fee, submit their own syllabuses. Could anything be fairer ? Are we going lightly to throw away the valuable results of twenty years' co-operation ? What would be the outcome ? Slackness and ' chaos ' would insidiously and unconsciously creep in. Standards of attainment would go by the board, varying from school to school, and teacher to teacher. It should not be beyond the powers of an Examinations Board to provide a test that pupils can take in their stride.

A good syllabus is like a Five-Year Plan—something to work towards. A good examination tests knowledge, intelligence, and *powers of expression*, all marks of an educated man. It does not pretend to do more. The onus is on our critics to provide an adequate substitute.

The secondary schools of this country, like everything human, are far from perfect, but they can stand up to fair criticism. Since 1902 they have cheerfully faced up to the ordeal of ' full inspections ' carried out by groups of experts, and have come through with flying colours. And, what is also important, they have gained the confidence of the community, which clamours for more of them. The supply cannot keep pace with the demand. Let critics and criticized alike concentrate on making them even better than they are.

THE HEURISTIC METHOD

By C. J. WOOLLEN

THE campaign of Prof. Henry E. Armstrong, at the beginning of this century, against the wooden, didactic methods of teaching in vogue at the end of the last took shape in his formulation of the ' Heuristic Method '.

As defined by Prof. Armstrong : " Heuristic methods of teaching are methods which involve our placing students as far as possible in the attitude of discoverers, methods which involve their *finding out* instead of being merely told about things." (*Teaching of Scientific Method.*)

Prof. Armstrong was himself a professor of chemistry, so it is perhaps natural that the method he formulated should have been used largely in the teaching of natural science. But there was another reason for this. Natural science, from its experimental nature, is peculiarly fitted for the application of methods that require students, as far as possible, to find out things for themselves.

But natural science by no means strictly confines itself to physics, chemistry, and the like : ' science ' embraces all knowledge ; and there is many a student's ' heureka ! ' that has proclaimed, not an Archimedean-like discovery of a physical law, but the wresting by trial and error of the meaning of an obscure word in a Latin unseen.

Prof. Armstrong, in fact, pointed out that the heuristic method was used by the best teachers of classics ; and Prof. Meiklejohn, many years before Armstrong propounded his views, had claimed that, while the heuristic technique was the only one that should be employed in the teaching of pure science, it could also be applied to the teaching of the arts. The method, moreover, in the words of the headmaster of one of our large public schools, " has been used by good schoolmasters to some extent probably for centuries past ".

Whatever the success of the method has been, it has everywhere had its critics. The Report of the British Association (1919) said of it that the over-emphasis on method and the ignoring of the importance of content had done much to bring it into disrepute. A general complaint against the method had been, too, that it presupposed a peculiarly gifted teacher, so sympathetic that he could think along the level of the student, however young and inquiring, and, as it were, progress with and at the same rate as each individual in the class, while guiding them all in the right direction. And, even when such a treasure of a teacher had been found, it was said that progress was abnormally slow ; so much so that were the method not abandoned after the early stages of science study, the pupil would have gone through the school without having learned very much.

These criticisms, however, are based on a misconception. It has been stated, for instance, that the heuristic method aims at " making every pupil discover everything for himself ". This is an erroneous interpretation of the method advocated by Prof. Armstrong and others, and embodies, moreover, an obvious absurdity. The method aims at assisting students to ' find out ', instead of merely being told about things, but does not exclude their being taught—why else would they need teachers ? And, if sufficient teachers cannot be found or trained who have or can acquire appropriate sympathy with the inquiring child-mind, it would seem that the majority of children are unfortunate in their teachers and would almost be better off without lessons at all.

Such a reflection on the qualifications of teachers in general is entirely unwarranted. But, even though teachers may be capable of adopting the heuristic method and willing to employ it in every subject that will allow of it, they are debarred from doing so by the pressure of examinations. " That the heuristic method is not more universally used ", said a prominent educationist recently, " is due to the tyranny of our examination system." It is, in fact, the necessity of working for examinations that obliges modern educational methods to put the emphasis on the absorbing of knowledge rather than on the cultivation of constructive thought.

It is noteworthy that the Spens Report on Secondary Education criticizes, though guardedly, this feature of modern education. " The Schools Certificate ", it says, " should follow the curriculum, and not determine it." Pupils, it says, should be " trained at school to think and reason for themselves, in order that they may be in a position as adults to examine critically and objectively the many forms of mass suggestion which will inevitably meet them in later life ". Moreover, " the habit of independent judgment may be fostered by providing them at school with

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suitable opportunities of thinking and reasoning for themselves ". And, although the compilers of the Report do not specifically recommend the heuristic method in the teaching of natural science, they evidently have it in mind when they say that the teaching of science " should give children an introduction to scientific methods of thought and investigation. This appeal is essentially one to the intellect, and, in so far as it is achieved, Science takes the place of the mediaeval study of logic ".

It is in that intellectual appeal that the value of the heuristic method lies. Its purpose is to encourage logical ways of thinking. And that, after all, is the fundamental purpose of education, for without the science of thought all knowledge will be of little avail.

GEOGRAPHY AND THE WAR IN RUSSIA

By J. H. STEMBRIDGE, Author of *The World-Wide Geographies, The New Oxford Geographies*, etc.

IT is difficult to give in a single article more than a superficial sketch of Russia, a country covering one-seventh of the land surface of the globe. Only the British Empire and China have a greater population, and only the British Empire exceeds it in size. But, whereas the British Empire has no geographical unity, Russia is the largest compact political unit in the world. These are facts of the utmost significance, for the Empire depends for its communications on the sea, while Russia is essentially a land power.

Curving across the northern half of Eurasia, Russia lies between the countries of Europe on the one hand, and those of eastern Asia on the other. Yet it must not be forgotten that the ocean washes two-thirds of its frontiers, but so unindented and, for the most part, inhospitable is its coast-line, and so vast is the area concerned, that Russia is primarily a continental country even in its relation to its lesser seas. And this continental environment has had a profound effect on the character of the Russian peoples, who, unlike those of Western Europe, are not circumscribed by the products of a congested civilization.

The Mid-European Plain extends through Germany and Poland into European Russia, where it stretches from the White Sea southward to the Caspian, the Caucasus Mountains, and the Black Sea. The Plain, which has an average elevation of some 500 feet, rises in low swellings rather than ridges. Chief of these uplands is the broad belt running from the Sea of Azov to the Valdai Hills, where it reaches a height of somewhat over 1,000 feet. From this area another, but rather broken belt, extends north-east to the Ural Mountains. Owing to their gentle configuration the uplands prove no hindrance to communications, and their importance lies rather in the fact that they form a divide between rivers draining north to the Baltic and the White Sea, and those flowing south to the Caspian and the Black Sea. Far more formidable an obstacle is the Pripet Marshes—the most extensive marshland area in Europe—lying athwart the Russo-Polish frontier. The railway from Warsaw to Moscow runs north of these marshes through the Baranovitch Gap to Minsk, and thence along the watershed to Smolensk. Napoleon followed this route in 1812. So, too, did Hitler's armies advancing on Russia's capital. But this was a fateful road for the ' Little Corporal '. Will it prove so also to Hitler ?

East of the Urals the Russian Plain extends into Asia, where it includes Western Turkistan and Western Siberia.

By way of contrast, Eastern Siberia is a rugged region, which forms the butt-end of the huge mountain mass of Central Asia. One of the oldest parts of the earth's surface, it is intersected by rivers, such as the Lena, which flow in precipitous valleys, and, like the Canadian Shield which is of similar geological formation, it is rich in minerals.

Most of Russia has the typical continental climate with extremes of heat and cold. The rainfall is relatively light. It diminishes from west to east, but over the greater part of the country most rain falls during the latter part of the summer. In winter, practically the whole of Russia, with the exception of the Crimea, has a temperature well below freezing point, the land is smothered in snow, and the farther one travels east the colder it becomes.

The effect of climatic factors on the Russian campaign should not, however, be over-estimated. Great heat, accentuated by lack of water, as in Libya, and torrential rains, such as those which render roads impassable in Abyssinia during summer, are much more likely to slow down military operations than severe winter weather. Great cold certainly entails hardships, but, while heavy snows retard the pace of infantry, as they did for instance in the case of Napoleon's *Grande Armée*, they have little effect on the mobility of modern armies : mechanized units can move more easily over frozen snow than over roads deep in mud. In winter the rivers are frozen for periods ranging from some three months in the south-west, to seven months, or more, in the north-east. But, though they are rendered useless for water transport at this season, they aid rather than hinder the movements of mechanized forces, for the ice is several feet thick and is certainly strong enough to support the weight of tanks and artillery. So far most of the battles in Russia have been battles for the rivers, but events have shown that under modern conditions of warfare even wide rivers, such as the Dnieper and the Don, are by no means impregnable even in summer. The waterways will probably prove even less effective barriers during winter.

Everybody realizes the paramount need of sending supplies to Russia, who is fighting our battles and those of America, as well as her own. Routes are difficult in summer, but they are much more so in winter. The Pacific port of Vladivostok is closed from December to April, and during the rest of the year goods shipped from the United States have to travel some 3,000 miles across the Pacific and the Sea of Japan—a potentially dangerous area—and then must be hauled over the trans-Siberian Railway for 7,000 miles to the Russian front. Archangel, 2,000 miles or so from Britain, is blocked by ice for six months. Murmansk, somewhat nearer Britain, is, however, more fortunate—thanks to the warm water of the Atlantic drift—and except during the coldest years it is possible to keep its harbour open by means of ice-breakers. But ships bound for these northern ports are obliged to pass through waters adjacent to German-occupied Norway.

As the Baltic and the Mediterranean–Black Sea routes are no longer available, the bulk of supplies intended for our ally during the coming months must be dispatched via the Cape and the Indian Ocean to Persian Gulf ports, a voyage of 15,000 miles from Britain, and 16,000 from the United States.

Since nearly the whole of European Russia and half of Asiatic Russia consists of lowlands, it is obvious that the natural divisions depend mainly on climate. The forest, which sprawls across northern Russia for 3,000 miles from the west to the Pacific, has an average breadth of nearly 1,000 miles. On the north it merges into the barren Arctic tundra, on the south-west into the steppes. Much of the forest is still in its virgin state, but towards the south in European Russia, vast areas have been cleared for agriculture, though extensive woodlands still remain to remind us of its once far greater extent. On the south-west this region passes gradually into the Black-Earth Lands of the Ukraine.

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Of the 170,000,000 inhabitants of the U.S.S.R. some 40,000,000 live in the Ukraine, which is not only the chief agricultural but also the principal industrial area in the Soviet Union. In passing it may be noted that before the outbreak of war 40 per cent of Russia's occupied population were engaged in industry compared with nearly 60 per cent in agriculture.

The Ukraine produces 20 per cent of Russia's wheat as well as vast quantities of barley, rye, oats, and sugar-beet. The Donetz Basin supplies 60 per cent of the coal, 60 per cent of the iron ore, 50 per cent of the steel, and 70 per cent of the aluminium manufactured in the U.S.S.R. Practically the whole of this area is now in German hands. Kiev, the capital of the Ukraine, Odessa, the chief port, Kharkov, Dniepropetrovsk, and other great centres have fallen, but their factories have been demolished by the Russians, who, though they have lost them, have prevented the Germans from using them for their own purposes.

A considerable part of the Donetz Basin was deprived of power by the destruction of the Zaporoje Dam, on the Dnieper, which as we know was blown up to prevent it falling into the hands of the invader. This Dam took years to build, but it was more than a huge power plant: it was a symbol of modern Russia, and of that industrialization which has made such rapid strides during the last decade. Yet the Russians did not hesitate to sacrifice this their greatest engineering work. Had the French displayed the same spirit they would still be in the fighting line. Now that freedom is lost in France it is sad to recall that it was she who presented to the United States the Statue of Liberty, which stands at the entrance to the chief port in the New World. Would it not be a generous gesture to the Old World if, after the war, the Americans built for the Russians a new dam as a token of gratitude for their untold sacrifices for the common cause?

It would be foolish to minimize the loss of productive capacity that Russia has suffered as a result of the elimination of output in the Donetz Basin. It is a disaster of the first magnitude, but it is not irreparable, and it can in part be made good by the increased output of the factories in the Ural industrial area and Siberia, to which workers and machinery have been transferred from the Donetz Basin. But, as the last-named region produced well over half of Russia's war material, the deficit must also be supplemented by supplies from Britain, the Empire, and the United States.

A certain amount of oil is secured from the newly-developed field in the Southern Urals, but most of Russia's supplies are obtained from the Caucasian fields, which account for 10 per cent of the world's oil. No less than 75 per cent of Russia's output comes from the Baku wells, whence it is piped to the Black Sea port of Batum. From Grozny oil is piped to Tuapse, on the Black Sea, and to Rostov-on-Don, and Trudovaya in the Donetz Basin. Oil is transported into the heart of Russia by the Volga and other inland waterways, while before the Germans overran the Ukraine it was shipped via the Black Sea to Kherson at the mouth of the Dnieper, and by that river and canals far into the interior.

The wealth of the Caucasus is not, however, confined to oil. There are extensive forests and agricultural lands yielding cotton, rice, and sub-tropical fruits. Even more important are deposits of such strategical materials as coal, iron, and copper, and steel-hardening metals, such as nickel and manganese, in which Russia as a whole is deficient. She also lacks tin and rubber, for which she depends mainly on Malaya and the Dutch East Indies.

Russia's rulers showed great insight when they not only developed her industries, but at the same time built up a huge war machine, whose efficiency, despite reverses, has surprised the world.

Russia's strength lies in her almost inexhaustible resources of man-power, and especially in her huge area. It has always been the policy of the Russians to fight, so to speak, with their land, and, while contesting every foot, they have been prepared to yield territory in order to keep their armies in being. They have adopted these tactics in the present war. They followed them in the First Great War. They used them against Napoleon, when it will be remembered that, though at Borodino Kutuzov lost half his forces and was obliged to retreat, and was compelled to abandon Moscow, yet he saved the nucleus of his armies, and so paved the way for the ultimate overthrow of Napoleon.

A century earlier the Russians had retreated before Charles XII of Sweden, but his armies suffered a disastrous defeat when he sent them far into the interior.

To-day the Russians have lost Kiev, Odessa, and scores of other towns, as well as hundreds of square miles of territory; and they may be obliged to evacuate Leningrad and Moscow. Yet, provided their dogged armies are furnished with supplies, the Russians, like the Chinese, should be able to hold out against an invader plunging farther into devastated and hostile country, and separated by ever-lengthening and ever-weakening lines of communications from those factories upon which his war machine depends.

What is the secret of the amazing fight the Russians are putting up against the greatest and most powerful armies of all time? Why do they destroy their towns, villages, homes, factories, crops, and forests rather than let them fall into the hands of the invader? Why, in short, do they so faithfully carry out Stalin's 'scorched earth' policy of devastation and destruction?

Environment, in part, at least, supplies the answer, for the character of a nation is largely moulded by geographic elements. These elements are many and varied, but in the case of Russia the outstanding geographical feature is her vast plains. For centuries these boundless stretches of grassland and arid tracts were the home of nomads, who roamed over them with their flocks. Life was often hard, sometimes swift action was required, but there was also leisure for contemplating the wide horizons and the vastness of nature.

Hence man's ideas took on a certain bold simplicity, which, in time, often gave birth to fanaticism. Moreover, the wandering life, where land was the common possession of the people, and where there were no settled habitations, did not encourage the personal ownership of land, nor the development of that civic life, with its wealth of material achievement, which reached such perfection in Western Europe.

Neither was there in Russia a limited area, such as Greece, to form the cradle of an infant civilization. Partly for this reason the historic development of Russia was slow, and her expansion gradual; while her vast extent, and the fact that enormous areas lie so far from the sea, retarded the opening up of the country.

Very different has been the development of the British, who from their sheltered but restricted island-home have spread to all quarters of the globe, and who, in the course of some three centuries, have built up the greatest Empire the world has ever known. The British are adventurous. They are probably more reserved than the Russians, and they are certainly greater individualists. But both peoples are ready to sacrifice their lives if needs be to preserve freedom. Each nation can learn much from the other, and their unity of purpose in the present conflict is a promising augury for the future of the post-war world.

"When the war is won, it must be one of our aims to work to establish a state of society where the advantages and privileges which hitherto have been enjoyed only by the few shall be far more widely shared by the men and youth of the nation as a whole."

WINSTON CHURCHILL.

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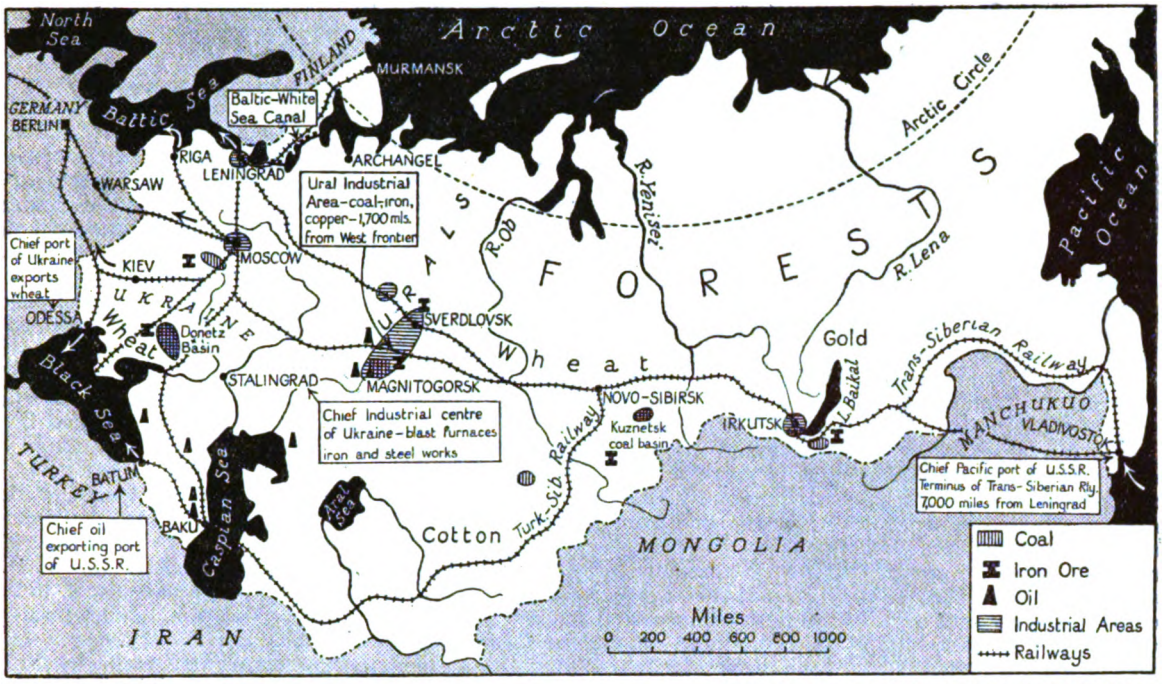

THE U.S.S.R.

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WHAT DO YOU KNOW ABOUT THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION?

By JOHN GRAVES, Malvern College

1. *Q.*—What is a Voluntary School ?

A.—A Voluntary School is (*a*) a school where pupils need not work unless they want to, (*b*) a school provided by the Church of England or other voluntary body, (*c*) a school where parents pay what they like.

2. *Q.*—What is ' Matric.' ?

A.—' Matric.' is (*a*) a minor degree at London University, (*b*) a superior kind of School Certificate, (*c*) a certificate of admission to a university, (*d*) a certificate of good work and conduct from a school inspector.

3. *Q.*—Who wrote the Hadow Report ?

A.—The Hadow Report was written by (*a*) A Royal Commission on Secondary Education, (*b*) Sir Henry Hadow, (*c*) The Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, (*d*) The National Union of Teachers.

4. *Q.*—What is the real title of the Spens Report ?

A.—The title of the Spens Report is (*a*) ' Secondary Education ', (*b*) ' The Education of the Adolescent ', (*c*) ' The Teaching of English in England ', (*d*) ' Secondary Education for all '.

5. *Q.*—Who pays the salaries of the staff in public elementary schools ?

A.—Teachers in public elementary schools are paid by (*a*) The Board of Education, (*b*) the school managers, (*c*) the local education authorities, (*d*) the head teachers.

6. *Q.*—When was the Board of Education set up ?

A.—The Board of Education was set up in (*a*) 1616, (*b*) 1833, (*c*) 1870, (*d*) 1899, (*e*) 1902.

7. *Q.*—Where are the offices of the Board of Education ?

A.—The Offices of the Board of Education are in (*a*) Whitehall, (*b*) County Hall, Westminster, (*c*) South Kensington, (*d*) Kingsway.

8. *Q.*—Who are the " Board " of Education ?

A.—The " Board " of Education are (*a*) leading Ministers of the Crown, (*b*) an Advisory Council of educationists appointed by the Crown, (*c*) a group of permanent Civil Servants.

9. *Q.*—How often do the " Board " meet ?

A.—The " Board " meet (*a*) once a month, (*b*) three times a year, (*c*) never, (*d*) they remain in permanent session.

10. *Q.*—Who is the President of the Board of Education ?

A.—The President of the Board of Education is (*a*) Lord Stanhope, (*b*) Sir Maurice Holmes, (*c*) Mr. Butler, (*d*) Mr. Ramsbotham, (*e*) Lord Soulbury.

11. *Q.*—What is meant by the term Board School ?

A.—A Board School means (*a*) a school controlled by the Board of Education, (*b*) a type of school abolished in 1902–3, (*c*) a school where pupils can have a hot midday meal, (*d*) a residential school.

12. *Q.*—At what age does a normal child become liable to compulsory attendance at school ?

A.—A normal child becomes liable to compulsory attendance at school at the age of (*a*) 5, (*b*) 6, (*c*) 7 years 6 months, (*d*) 8.

13. *Q.*—Up to what age is a normal child obliged to remain at school ?

A.—A normal child is obliged to remain at school till the age of (*a*) 12, (*b*) 13, (*c*) 13 or 14, (*d*) 14, (*e*) 14 or 15, (*f*) 15.

14. *Q.*—What is a Special School ?

A.—A Special School is a school (*a*) for backward children, (*b*) for the cleverest children, (*c*) for children with mental or physical defects.

15. *Q.*—What is a Non-Provided School ?

A.—A Non-Provided School is an elementary school (*a*) whose erection has not yet been sanctioned, (*b*) which has been built but not yet furnished, (*c*) which is not provided by the local education authority.

[*The answers to these questions will be found on page* 547—ED.]

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EDUCATION FOR WORLD CITIZENSHIP

By EVAN T. DAVIS, Chairman of the Summer School, and JOHN GRAVES, Malvern College

THE League of Nations Union in Britain, and similar bodies in other countries, sought to mobilize world opinion behind the League of Nations. In the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation the savants of the world sought, amongst other things, to emphasize the idea that all countries, great and small, had made, and would continue to make, contributions to the advance of culture—provided peace amongst nations could be maintained. Olympic games, and the like, brought the cream of the world's athletes together in friendly rivalry and to the end of mutual physical improvement. Exchanges of pupils, teachers, professors, industrialists, administrators were all designed, as to the main part, to bring home the lesson that we can learn from each other in all branches of human endeavour. We even got so far as some measure of agreement on the elimination from school text-books of the more obvious national extravagances. Yet, at the same time, there grew up steadily forces working against co-operation—stiffer trade barriers, more extreme expressions of nationalism. The researches of the International Labour Office laid bare the roots of some of the most extreme and destructive forms of competition, and produced many beneficent legislative reforms and the wide spread of scientific knowledge on economic and industrial problems. If we could find out, with precision, how these opposite tendencies came to develop in the same world at the same time, and why it was that the latter group of tendencies eventually toppled the world over into war, we should have the essentials upon which to build enduring peace when the present conflict comes to an end.

The title of the Council for Education in World Citizenship seems pretentious and provocative, but it was the best that could be found at the time, and the suggestion of a better title would be welcomed so long as it expressed the ideals towards which the Council is working. It may well be that, had the world's leaders concerned themselves more with the discovery and exposition of the fundamental principles of co-operation amongst men, and less with the elaboration of formulae designed to give the semblance of agreement to the stern facts of profound disaccord, the last twenty years might not have been a mere uneasy *entr'acte*.

The Council seeks first to get together educational leaders in the democratic countries to examine (*a*) where we have gone wrong in our educational outlook and policy in the last twenty years or so, (*b*) what is happening now to the educational structure built up with so much effort and sacrifice throughout Europe, and (*c*) what remains on which we can build and what must be avoided and even rooted out. As the influence of the League on world relations became weaker, so did the interest of the schools in the League wane. Now interest in the League—or some more efficient instrument—is returning amongst people who believe that it is not wrong to plan for peace whilst we are in the midst of war. Educators are examining lines of approach towards a solution. Shall we employ the method of direct study of world affairs in the class-room and school societies? Shall we suggest a world outlook in the teaching of class-room subjects? Shall we provide worth-while opportunities of service to the school and community, and make these the starting-point for a study of local, then national, then international affairs? Or shall we adopt a technique which is a combination of all three?

These were, in the main, the matters which received the attention of a very successful and well-attended Conference organized by the Council and held in Lynmouth early in August of this year. The President of the Council, Dr. Gilbert Murray—honoured, in the midst of a great war, with the Order of Merit in recognition of his leadership in the cause of peace—opened the Conference with a brilliant exposition of the causes of the present war and of the principles of world citizenship. He found the causes of the present war in the co-existence of two stages of human development—the stage in which war is the greatest glory and is deliberately planned in time of peace, and the stage in which man will lay down his life for some selfless, high purpose. The problem of world citizenship as the only guarantee of enduring peace is an educational one, and its solution lies in the conscience of humanity which education must develop and sensitize. Mr. H. C. A. Gaunt, Headmaster of Malvern College, discussed the place of religion in international co-operation. In his view, the present war is a war of religion between the god of force and the god of freedom. The test to apply to new legislation will be: "Will this enable people to love God better and to love their neighbours better?" In the discussion, Miss Baker, Headmistress of Badminton School and the Summer School's kindly and efficient hostess, pleaded for greater sincerity and loyalty to the ethical teaching of Jesus. Children should be introduced, before they leave school, to the other great religions in order to find the fundamental basis of world citizenship in love of one's fellow-men. Restrained but deeply-moving statements were made by Dr. Vaclav Beneš, wearing the uniform of an officer of the Czech army, and Count Jean Balinski Jundzill, Deputy Director of the Polish Research Centre, on the extremity of degradation which is now being imposed on the culture and educational institutions of Czecho-Slovakia and Poland. Members of the School will long hold in recollection Count Balinski's fine, sincere, and sensitive appeal for charity and love based on the lines:

> "Above the embattled nations love still stands,
> And to both sides he stretches forth his hands."

Dr. Murray talked of the work of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation served by savants of world repute—Bergson, Einstein, Madame Curie, &c.—and meeting to discuss problems of human relationships not yet ripe for political treatment. The Committee had set a group of French and German historians to work on the compilation of a balanced, impartial, modern history, which would have been the source-book for school history text-books.

In two addresses on "The Failure of the League" and "The League and the Future", Prof. Brodetsky said that the failure of the League was not entirely due to bad luck: the reason was more fundamental: that that part of the League's activities which dealt with international affairs was too mechanical and political. There was something missing—the moral courage to face the big issues and to carry out the obligations imposed by the Covenant. In present discussions on post-war reconstruction there is much confusion because people are thinking of three different stages: a stage of supremacy of three or four great powers; a stage of confederations of powers—Slavs, Teutons, Latins—with conflicting interests; and the final stage—the democratic world state for the establishment of which we need a new prophet to inspire youth. In a paper on "Problems of Social and Economic Reconstruction", Mr. A. A. Evans, of the International Labour Office, said that any future economic plans must be made by those who understand the needs of the ordinary citizen. One of the chief problems will be the control of cyclical tendencies with their recurring slumps. We must start at the consumer's end and stimulate his expenditure by giving him a good income by means of new public works, family allowances, pensions, &c. Miss Courtney, Vice-Chairman of the Executive Committee of the League of Nations Union, said that disarmament is not a moral but a political problem, since it is bound up with

(*Continued on page* 530)

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questions of strategic bases and the prevention of aggression. In the post-war years before 1932 the need of Germany for equality and of France for security had not been met.

Just before a brilliant lecture by Prof. Arthur Newell, Chairman of the American Outpost in Great Britain, the School listened to the announcement on the wireless of the great Atlantic Charter, and this proved an inspiring prelude. Dr. Newell reviewed American history from 1790, and showed how the thirteen original States on the Atlantic coast turned their eyes westward to their own problems of expansion, and so became less and less interested in the problems of Europe. He explained the emergence of the greater Union, the slow absorption of immigrants from Europe, and the slow development of a national consciousness. In 1939, America " climbed into the grand-stand " to watch the new European conflict. In 1940 she made the startling discovery that it was not the Atlantic but the British Navy which protected her on the East and guaranteed the Monroe Doctrine. The U.S.A. was moving forward towards the final step in acceptance of her place in the struggle for the maintenance of freedom and democracy.

The School was fortunate in its speakers on schools and their curricula in relation to the ideal of world citizenship. Miss M. E. Beggs, Lecturer in History at Goldsmiths' College, maintained that outlook was more important than anything else in teaching. In her view real history, which is the story of the developments of human relations, can be taught only to adults. Younger people should be given an approach to history which will enable them to live the parts of the historical characters they find most interesting. Miss Margaret Miles, who teaches history at Badminton School, believed that pupils in secondary schools were old enough to appreciate history in its abstract principles. It should be presented as the whole adventure of man, seen as from the top of a mountain. There would be a time, later, for the pupil to descend to the plains and to study details. Mr. B. A. Howard, Headmaster of Addey and Stanhope School, and author of *The Proper Study of Mankind*, said we could, to a large extent, rely on the organization of the school to teach citizenship by providing opportunities for co-operation, acceptance of responsibility, and tolerance. His suggestion for collecting specialist pupils, between 16 and 18 years of age, for periods of general lectures and discussions, seemed a most interesting and fruitful one. Mr. C. H. Dobinson, Head of King Edward's Grammar School, Birmingham, stressed the importance of teaching scientific method and the scientific approach. When scientific method is made explicit, the habits thus formed are more likely to be transferred to other fields of human activity. This is the chief contribution that science teaching can make to the brotherhood of man. An optional paper on the history of science in the school certificate examination would lead to the realization of the contributions made throughout the ages by men of all colours and races to the development of culture.

The proceedings of the Education Committee of the League of Nations Union owed much to the scholarship, originality, and experience of Miss Stewart, Principal of the Lincoln Training College for Women. Her address at this School reached a high level not only in inspiration but also in practical suggestions for relating the teaching of history and the humanistic studies to the promotion of the ideal of world citizenship.

There is unfortunately no space to do justice to lectures by Capt. O. Bell, Secretary of the British Film Institute, on " The Place of the Film in International Education ", by Mr. Nowell C. Smith, Chairman of the Management Committee of the Council, on " Thomas Masaryk ", and by Mrs. Beatrice King, Assistant Editor of *The Anglo-Soviet Journal*, on " Educational and Social Developments in Soviet Russia ".

Time was found, in a busy week, for discussing the part which the Youth Service Movement could play in securing the objects for which the Council was formed.

The success of the Summer School was proved in a practical way by the number of people who joined as corresponding members ' on the spot '—the subscription rate for this is 5s. a year : the rate for schools is £1 a year—or 3d. a member. Further information may be obtained from the Secretary, Council for Education in World Citizenship, 11 Maiden Lane, London; W.C. 2. The Council's main aim is to link the childhood and youth of Britain, and of the world, to the ideal of permanent and enduring World Peace.

EDUCATION IN SCOTLAND

THE Scottish Education Department's report on the educational life of Scottish schools from January 1, 1939 to December 31, 1940 gives a picture of affairs that, all things considered, might have been a great deal worse. Much more might have been written about evacuation, but the report is, in the main, content to show by inference how great the difficulties were. Of the 101,774 school children, accompanied by teachers and helpers, evacuated in the first three days of September, 1939, only 21,000 had not returned to their homes by June, 1940, and this figure was reduced to 12,500 by the end of that year. As a consequence of this return school air-raid shelters had to be got ready at a cost of nearly £1,000,000. It would appear that secondary-school education has suffered least of all, and that the lee-way is gradually being made up in respect of those elementary school children who had a greater or less period of no schooling at all. By December, 1940, out of 743,800 children on the school rolls, 566,500 were receiving full time education, 162,200 half-time, 13,500 less than half-time, and 3,600 no education. While precise figures are lacking, it is understood that there has been a great improvement all round in respect of half-time education, and a particularly great and much-needed improvement in the treatment of the 3,600 who were being deprived of any education. This has been accomplished in the teeth of the fact that a very considerable number of schools were requisitioned by H.M. Forces for their pressing needs in some districts. The report, in brief, shows that the fundamentals of a sound education have been maintained in a way which few thought possible at the outbreak of war.

The " Art for the People " exhibition which has been shown in various towns of Scotland during recent months came a few weeks ago to the National Gallery, Edinburgh. Run under the auspices of the British Institute of Adult Education and assisted by C.E.M.A., it has had a very marked degree of success. In Edinburgh there has been associated with the exhibition a particularly lively set of meetings addressed by artistic and literary experts who have not been slow to take advantage of the opportunity given them. Mr. Edwin Muir, for example, raised anew in acute form the influence of Calvinism in Scottish art and literature. Mr. Stanley Cursiter, Director of the National Gallery, dealt about him in handsome fashion with the lack of any real co-ordination between the schools, the art colleges, and the universities. He raised many points of first-class importance, notably by his insistence that there should be in the art colleges differing kinds of training for those who were going into industry and the crafts on the one hand, and those who were going to be teachers on the other. But what intrigued his audience most was his vision of a gallery of art that would be not the repository of the works of the dead but a place where every kind of art would be represented not in perpetuity but in continuous

(*Continued on page 532*)

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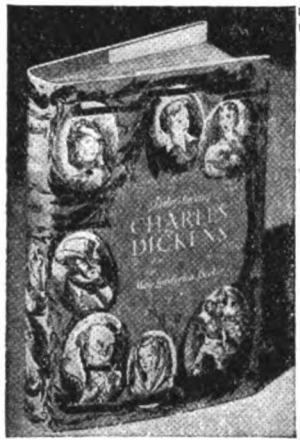

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flow. He envisaged a place where foreign art would be seen, where students as well as the general public would be made alive to what was happening abroad, and where local artists and craftsmen would have a real chance of demonstrating the contribution Scotland is capable of making. Mr. Cursiter, by means of the National Gallery, is performing in these dark days a service of signal merit. He has had inter-allied exhibitions, R.A.F. shows, several exhibitions of children's drawings and paintings, lunch-time music, evening concerts illustrating the contribution made by various countries now allied to Britain in her struggle, and has made of the Gallery something very far different, in his own words, from "a sort of graveyard for pictures where the visitor tip-toed about so as not to waken the attendants".

President Beneš of Czechoslovakia and Sir Malcolm Robertson, chairman of the British Council, performed the opening ceremony on November 5 of the Scottish-Czechoslovak House, at 34 Lauder Road, Edinburgh. The house, which has been established as a social and cultural centre for the many Czechoslovak civilians, soldiers, and airmen in Scotland, owes its foundation to the initiative of the Czechoslovak Government through their Edinburgh representative, Dr. L. Soukub, and the assistance of the British Council through their Scottish Regional Officer, Mr. H. Harvey Wood. After the opening, President and Madame Beneš attended a luncheon given in their honour by the British Council, at which Sir Malcolm Robertson spoke of the special respect in which Czechoslovakia and her President are held by the British people, not only for their tradition of freedom, but also for the splendid fight which they are at present waging against the German oppressors. In reply, President Beneš referred to the "noble work" of the British Council in establishing the Scottish-Czechoslovak House and the Czechoslovak Institute in London, and added that the Czechoslovak Government intend to establish a British national centre in Prague as soon as victory is achieved.

CORRESPONDENCE

CORRECTION OF HOMEWORK

SIR,—I should like to support the views of Sir Philip Hartog, as expressed in the letter in your November issue, in which he points out the ineffectiveness of "red-ink corrections" and suggests an investigation on the subject. My own experience is similar to Sir Philip's. When it was my official duty to inspect schools in London, I often took the opportunity of looking at the pupils' exercises in composition and taking steps to discover what benefit had accrued from the teachers' corrections; and the conclusion I came to was that the benefit was almost nil. The average pupil apparently looked at the final mark and ignored the rest. My sympathy went with the teachers who had spent so many dreary hours on a dismal task and had achieved so little. To be reasonably effective their corrections should be pushed further: they should be followed up. But even so the drudgery of marking would remain—nay, would be augmented. All that may, however, perhaps be avoided by some such method as that indicated by Sir Philip in his letter. My own opinion is that much of the burden may safely be shifted from the teachers to the pupils. For I am inclined to think that many of the blunders which are pointed out to the pupils could very well be discovered by the pupils themselves; that is, if they are given an opportunity of revising their exercises before handing them in. Nay more, they should come to regard careful revision as an essential part of the exercise. The exercise sent in is, as a rule, the first draft. Its main merit is its neatness. There are neither scorings nor interpolations. My point is that we should encourage scorings and interpolations. We should encourage self-criticism and place a premium on second thoughts. May I then suggest that part of the proposed investigation should be directed towards finding out to what extent a pupil can himself improve on his first draft?

Chute, Nr. Andover, Hants. P. B. BALLARD.

PROVISION OF WAR-TIME NURSERIES

SIR,—It has come to the point when we as a great nation have got seriously to ask ourselves why we have proved so inadequate in arranging for the health, safety, and happiness of our babies and little children in war time; why we have failed to give their mothers the necessary confidence in our arrangements so that they may be content to leave the children to others while they do work to help end the war and so secure a happy and peaceful world in which their children may grow up.

The answer to this question is short and certainly unpalatable. The cause is selfishness—selfishness in high places in the form of competition between government departments, and between voluntary organizations. Each and all will say, "but we have worked and planned, we have co-operated". All this is true, but in every case there is competition for power, jealousy of place: "let us, our Ministry or our Society, be the leader in this war-time effort; we are the people". It is not said, perhaps not even thought, but to the onlooker it lurks behind all action, and delays it.

Selfishness too in the upper-middle class who would rather care for their own immediate comfort than make happy, safe homes in the country for the children and brothers and sisters of their own countrymen and countrywomen who are working, fighting, dying, to make a safe place for others to live in.

Selfishness too of local authorities who are happy in their own locality, ordered to meet the needs of their particular citizens, and cannot take the wider view, except in a grudging spirit, nor extend their organization to meet efficiently the crying need of the children of workers and of bombed-out parents.

The English Government, true to form, have up to date appealed to voluntary effort. In individual cases this has been forthcoming, but the impetus, the initial effort, has so often been checked through lack of a direct lead, through ever-fluctuating decisions, that it has been hard to keep up the zeal with which the first efforts were made.

It is clear now that, if anything is to be done before it is too late, compulsory measures must be adopted and a special committee established with full powers to work out a scheme and to put it into operation in the shortest possible time.

In looking deeply into the cause of this second great war and the inevitable stride toward it after the Armistice in 1918, England has rightly blamed herself for want of foresight, for love of selfish ease, and for turning a deaf ear to her prophets.

Certain local education authorities have made the provision of nursery schools part of their programme. Voluntary nursery organizations also, such as that at Tyneside, have flowered and continue to do so. Given a long enough peace, the torch might have been handed on from one to another till the goal was reached, but the pauses caused by hesitation in taking up the torch would not have made a good team for the torch race and the rate of the individual runners would have been amazingly different.

The correspondence in *The Times* on the matter of war-time nurseries has been interesting to follow and no doubt, besides the ordinary man, those in power over these matters have read the words of their critics.

(*Continued on page 534*)

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Kenneth Lindsay's letter of November 1 overtops all others in importance because he clears the argument of all side issues, of all detail of procedure and gets down to the bare bones of an essential policy. " It is (under present arrangements) no one person's whole-time job to see that quick and authoritative decisions on accommodation, equipment, and staffing are taken both at the centre and in the localities." " I am more than ever convinced that the Government has made a wrong decision, and that only a complete reversal will meet the needs." " The Board, directors of education, teachers, and *bona fide* bodies like the Nursery School Association are all familiar with the job. Naturally they need co-operation from doctors, nurses, and those who supply food, but unity of direction is essential." " To secure this object one person must be placed in charge, preferably a woman. A new department should be added to the Board just as Youth Service and C.E.M.A. were added eighteen months ago. The responsible person should have a small expert advisory council, serviced by carefully selected civil servants. These names could be agreed within twenty-four hours. Lastly, every education authority should reproduce this simple framework within its own county or borough, enlisting the appropriate voluntary helpers and securing the 100 per cent grant."

He is asking for a unified control; for a new department in the Board of Education under the leadership of a woman who has the personality and drive of a Lord Beaverbrook, and the power to call in experts in all the necessary branches of knowledge to her aid. The material is all there ready to her hand and, if the appointment is made without prejudice, without precedent, without favour, without any relation to established official procedure, *i.e.* if the War Cabinet goes straight for the person born for the job, the decks will soon be cleared, the crew organized and the ship carry its valuable cargo into a sunlit port.

A CORRESPONDENT.

THE CHURCHES AND THE CHILDREN

SIR,—I was most interested to read in *The Journal of Education* for October Mr. Raymont's letter on the teaching of religion. He suggests in it an approach to the matter which deserves very careful examination. Great stress has been laid recently on the need for teachers to teach, not merely their subject, but *children*: that is to say, over and above the obvious requisite of exact and expert knowledge of his subject, the teacher must possess an understanding of the minds of the children he teaches. The verb ' to teach ', in English as in Latin, takes two direct objects, and it is fatal to neglect either of them.

In the teaching of religion this need for understanding the child is even greater in so far as the aim of religious education is not so much to impart knowledge as to communicate an attitude to life; its aim lies in the realm of character rather than that of intellect. But this surely patent fact has not yet been adequately grasped in theory nor applied in practice. Those who are responsible for religious instruction in schools do not yet seem fully to have realized the necessity for approaching the child's mind on its own level of understanding.

Of course, one is here faced with a dilemma which it is by no means easy to solve. Should one, like many religious bodies and with the approval of so great a mind as Plato's, ' get the child young ' and instil into its mind a philosophy of life which, though incomprehensible to it at the time, will remain a guiding force in its life ever after? Or should one follow the principle of freedom in religion, maintaining that sincere and deliberate choice is more valuable than a prompted acceptance, and leaving the child to make a decision which is genuinely its own? The answer is not easy, especially for those who are convinced that a religious or, more particularly, a Christian, attitude to life is of supreme importance. My own view is that the former method smacks too much of Nazism, and that the choice must be free and unprompted even though this involves greater risk (albeit a risk which God Himself thought fit to take).

It seems to me, therefore, that there are definite limits to the range of religious instruction at any age up to the end of adolescence, and that the teacher's duty is to discover these limits and work to the utmost of his ability within them. I should like, very tentatively, to make the following suggestions.

Religious instruction should be more fully adapted at all ages to the capacity of the child's understanding. There are few teachers who do not accept this in principle, and many are applying it in practice. The Christian experience is something which only a mind approaching maturity can begin to grasp. Most children are too self-centred, too self-confident, too eager to express themselves, to accept, for instance, the Christian doctrine of love. Again, it is only in later adolescence that the power of comprehending abstract ideas is sufficiently developed for the child to appreciate points of doctrine. To try to force on children conceptions for which they are not ready may only increase the attitude of rebellion through which they normally pass during a part of adolescence, and so result in permanent hostility to religion; or it may create the impression that religion is something difficult and abstruse, something unrelated to every-day life. But meet the child always on his own level of mind and feeling, encourage in him those moral qualities which he can readily appreciate, and you will have sound foundations for further building. Until the age of 17 or 18, therefore, the main aims of religious instruction should be:

1. The adaptation of the growing child to his environment—his school-mates, the larger society of town, country, humanity, the universe, the achievements of the human spirit in the arts. This will demand not only a very thorough understanding of the individual child and of psychology (particularly adolescent psychology), but also the ability on the teacher's part to answer for the child a good many difficult questions.
2. The formation in the child of certain primary moral habits such as honesty, justice, reasonableness, tolerance, discipline, which, whatever the religion the child may later adopt, are essential for any ordered life in a community.
3. To give the child a knowledge of the principal world religions and of the function of religion in life, stressing Christianity partly because of its superiority in number of (nominal) adherents, and partly because it is the national religion of this country and is inextricably woven into its history and traditions. Also to give the child a clear impression of the personality of Christ in all its manifold fascination, and of His influence on the course of human history.
4. To encourage the child to think about the problems of human destiny—of life and death and what comes after. Most children are interested in such problems at some time during adolescence, and they should be given opportunity to discuss them and think them out.

If these aims are successfully accomplished, a solid foundation will have been laid for the finer superstructure of Christian belief and life.

It is more important to encourage in children a religious attitude to life than to instil doctrine. Such an attitude implies, beyond the acceptance of such primary virtues as I have suggested, creativeness, a sense of the sacredness of labour and of natural resources, efficiency, and order. Once given such an attitude, doctrine will slide into place without the usual friction.

School services should be better adapted to the needs of children. Sermons above the heads of children are far too frequent and do more harm than good. It follows that, where in a school there is a great age range, separate services should be arranged for seniors and juniors.

(*Continued on page 536*)

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Very serious consideration should be given to the question of confirmation. Is 14 or 15 too low an age ? Can children of that age realize the implications of confirmation or make a considered choice for Christianity ? Or is it fair even to ask them to make such a choice at that age ?

Perhaps I shall be accused of wishing to substitute for Christianity a vague humanism-cum-utilitarianism. But that is not my intention at all. I am fully convinced that without the knowledge of God as revealed in Jesus Christ the rising generation will *not* be able to remake the world, and that somehow children must be brought to that knowledge. But I do believe it is harmful to the cause of true religion to try to force on children, at whatever age, conceptions which they are not yet capable of grasping, and that, given a sound substructure of morality and integration, the Christian superstructure can be more easily and more permanently built.

One last word—religion is caught not taught, as we are so often told. If members of the Church, clerical and lay, were to live out Christ's teaching to the full, there would be less need in schools for the teaching of Christian doctrine.

St. George's School, F. W. GARFORTH.
Harpenden.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

SIR,—In your October number a letter from Mr. J. Stewart Cook on " Religious Education " seems to me to display a nineteenth-century outlook. One is tempted to disagree with all his points automatically, even the references to ' Physics ' and ' Literature '.

Two articles in your September issue occasioned Mr. Cook's letter. In that same issue were letters continuing a discussion on what should be taught under the heading of ' Literature ', showing that everybody is not agreed about the matter, nor ever will be. In all staff-rooms there is constant discussion about the content of the course in different subjects, and the varieties of opinion which exist among those of us who, as teachers, desire to see Scripture satisfactorily and thoroughly treated in the class-room, are no more than similar differences in the other subjects.

At the same time I willingly admit and deplore that those who profess and call themselves Christian have so often given to others the entirely erroneous impression that the things which divide Christians are more important than those which unite. In reality the reverse is the truth, and never more true than to-day.

I should like to take time to disagree with the implications behind the term ' secular ' State, as if the State were an arbiter between different religions. I should also like to develop a flat contradiction of the statement that " the growing knowledge of science, of Biblical scholarship and historical investigation and cultural honesty and candour all combine to question the very fundamentals of the Christian faith ". My own reading of all these matters brings me to quite the reverse conclusion. But I will end by drawing your correspondent's attention to your notes on Christian Education on page 367 of that same September issue. The fundamental urgency behind all this discussion is there clearly stated. FREDERICK JEFFERY.

Methodist College,
Belfast.

NATIONAL SCHOOL-LEAVING CERTIFICATE

SIR,—Mr. Barnard's excellent article in the October number of *The Journal* on " The Central or Modern School " reminds us of the desirability of raising the school-leaving age to 16, and the achievement of equal status for all post-primary schools both in the eyes of the public and the educational profession.

I suggest that every child who satisfactorily completes a course in a post-primary school should receive a National School Leaving Certificate stating the courses he or she has successfully followed and perhaps the degree of success attained. This certificate should be identical in form whatever the school attended—grammar school, technical high school, central school, modern school, public school, or independent school.

Its award need not be based upon ' examination ', but ' assessment ', but the certificate should be of value to employers as documentary evidence of a school career, and to parents and pupils as a record of work accomplished. The certificate should do much to equalize the status of the various types of school in the public estimation.

Hove College, J. DICKSON.
Somerset.

THE EXTENSION OF BOARDING-SCHOOL EDUCATION

SIR,—In your November number, on page 472, I am quoted as having said that " after the war, service camps should be converted into public schools so as to extend more widely the benefits of public school education ". This was the way in which one or two newspapers incorrectly reported what I said. Actually, throughout my speech I used the words " residential schools ".

The Western Daily Press on Tuesday, September 16, gave correctly the gist of what I said in this paragraph :

" Stressing the need for more residential schools, Mr. Hallward suggested that after the war the R.A.F. camps, Army O.C.T.U. establishments, and others like them, could be well utilized as the basis of the new form of education."

You will note that I spoke of a " new form of education ", and did not say that the new residential schools should be founded on the exact lines of the present public schools. I agree with you in thinking that the whole matter wants very careful consideration. B. L. HALLWARD.

Clifton College,
Erdiston, Bude.

PUBLIC AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

SIR,—Before very long, as a part of post-war reconstruction, it will be necessary to consider very carefully the reorganization of our system of secondary education. At the present time it is most important that no steps should be taken, in an attempt to meet immediate difficulties, which will make this task more complicated.

There is one immediate difficulty which has been advertised very widely during the past year or so. A number of the less wealthy (may I say minor ?) public schools have been financially embarrassed. There has been a movement to meet this by giving them State aid on specially privileged terms. We already have three grades of State-aided secondary schools, and there is a serious attempt to make a fourth. I wish most emphatically to protest against any proposal of this kind.

If any independent school requires State aid the procedure is very simple. They can apply to the local education authority to become an aided school. Alternatively they can apply to the Board of Education for the direct grant. A considerable number of public schools of good standing, which I have no space to name individually, are to be found in both these categories. It is therefore very difficult to understand what claim any school now in financial difficulties can reasonably make to receive different treatment, or what educational advantage is likely to arise from this procedure. I suggest that such schools willingly take their place alongside those which have already come into the State system on the ordinary terms. The proposal to form a special class is a more or less disguised attempt to institute a new class privilege, and I trust all interested in education will see it in that light, and will oppose it absolutely. What is now needed is not the institution of new class privileges, but the abolition of those that exist.

I trust it will not be necessary to elaborate this further. It is to be hoped that this agitation will die down, and that wiser counsels will prevail. The number of those who will be able to send their sons to special independent schools will undoubtedly be decreased by the inevitable impoverish-

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ment of the post-war years. The obvious remedy is for a number of independent schools to be absorbed into the ranks of the ordinary State-aided schools.

5 Ferry Road, Teddington. H. S. SHELTON.

THE FUTURE IN EDUCATION

SIR,—One of the most valuable contributions to educational thought in recent months is Sir Richard Livingstone's *The Future in Education* (Cambridge University Press). In it he stresses the need for every one to have more education, a more liberal education, and an education resumed or extended after the age of 30. This is admirable advice, and the latter part of it may well be applied to schoolmasters, and perhaps even to college tutors. Thring of Uppingham urged his colleagues to keep up their studies, and thus to teach from a flowing stream and not from a stagnant pool. Other pioneers have stressed the need for all teachers to do some research into their subject year by year; and, no doubt, more masters than we sometimes hear about are doing this sort of thing, or would be, if there was no war on.

What interests me particularly in Sir Richard Livingstone's fascinating book is his division of the vast complex of subjects into two parts:

(*a*) The study of the material Universe;
(*b*) The study of man as a thinking, sentient, and spiritual being.

The situation could not better be summed up, and it is clear that no education can really be satisfactory which is not based on science and history. But I wonder if many of your readers remember a series of stimulating articles on education, written in the *Westminster Gazette* by William Archer (Kappa), and published in book-form in 1905 with the title *Let Youth But Know*. He defines a liberal education as one which combines "a study of the architecture of Aladdin's Palace with a critical investigation of the Adventures of Sindbad", "the dome of the million jewels which is nightly builded over our heads, marvellous to the eye, but incomparably more marvellous to the mind", and "the toils and vicissitudes, the triumphs and defeats, of our fathers and our brothers, the race of man on earth"—"History co-ordinated with science as the twin-constituent in a liberal education". When I started teaching forty years ago, I found tremendous stimulus in those inspiring words of William Archer, which were published just before or soon after A. C. Benson's *Upton Letters*, and the life of *Edward Bowen of Harrow*. In his preface, William Archer laments that Herbert Spencer's *Education*, written forty years before, has exercised so little influence on our curriculum. It is also a rather depressing thought that the efforts of Archer, Benson and Bowen, nearly forty years ago, have not had more results, and need to be restated once again in 1941. But, perhaps, in such an imperfect world, educational truths, like moral and political truths, must be shouted from the housetops all the time, in season and out of season.

St. George's School, Harpenden. NORMAN G. BRETT-JAMES.

SIR,—Everybody but a die-hard Conservative must surely agree with the main contention of Sir Richard Livingstone's book *The Future in Education*: that we are an uneducated nation; that the present system supplies only an inadequate beginning, a terribly—wasteful smattering often merely plastered on the mind; and that further opportunities should somehow be provided for experienced adults of all ages. His arguments for those subjects which deal with the life of men, History and Literature, are hardly controversial, but his faintly disparaging attitude towards those dealing with men's environment, Science and Mathematics, seem to me scarcely justified; he asserts that they are easy of comprehension and devoid of human interest, presenting the student with little mental food for critical thought and judgment.

(*Continued on page* 538)

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At the beginning of Chapter II he states a principle which, he contends, has been wholly overlooked in education, namely: "That almost any subject is studied with much more interest and intelligence by those who know something of its subject-matter than by those who do not: and, conversely, that it is not profitable to study theory without some practical experience of the facts to which it relates." Now, every word of this principle applies to the study of mathematics *if properly presented*. The foundations of arithmetic should be the pupil's own observation and experience; counting—a joy when applied to simple games with cards, dice, dominoes, &c.—should lead to the discovery of advantage in knowing the multiplication table, a desire to memorize it, and a sense of power when it is mastered; geometrical properties of triangles, circles, &c., should be actually discovered before argument about them begins—the *leit-motiv* of those who dethroned Euclid 30 years ago; and the realization that numbers, whatever they may be, obey definite rules of orderly behaviour—algebra; these are experiences that are so frequently and deplorably omitted from mathematics in its early stages. In the feverish haste to get on, little of this is ever put into practice, and, in consequence, many look upon mathematics as mysterious 'dodges to get sums right' rather than glorified common sense, its true character. How many of our young victims are persuaded or driven to memorize without understanding or conviction! How many learn algebraical formulae by heart, basing their acceptance upon authority! How many memorize proofs of geometrical theorems in order to hoodwink the examiner and obtain 50 per cent, or whatever it is, and are then supposed to know about the subject!

Sir Richard speaks of mathematics as "purely abstract and theoretic" and asserts that "no experience is required for the subject". Far from being purely abstract and theoretic, it should from the earliest stages spring directly from the perception of order in the world, requiring continually further experience to "illuminate and correct it". And that no experience is required is sufficiently disproved by the multiplication of laboratories and measurement rooms in enlightened quarters as the basis of natural philosophy. Science from a text-book is not knowledge: mathematics without concrete foundations in its early stages is Hollywood scenery, flimsy and superficial, juggling and jejune jargon. And to many who have been through the treadmill such it appears.

Again, he says: "The pupil learns it in order to become an engineer, an accountant, or to add up marks or his house-books, or for some similar purpose, and also perhaps because it trains the mind"—the assumption being that mathematics is purely utilitarian or "perhaps" discipline. It is to be hoped that some more competent authority, Whitehead or Bertrand Russell, will take up the cudgels and demolish that view, presenting us with a juster conception of the content and purpose of mathematics as a subject in the education of youth.

In an admirable passage our author describes the process of educating the undergraduate: "to argue a case and weigh evidence, to distinguish the relevant from the irrelevant, to seize the point at issue, to arrange his thoughts and marshal facts to support a theory, to discover when a statement is proved and when it is not, to reason logically and express himself clearly—in fact to play the great game of the intellect; just as soldiers playing a war game with maps and flags in some degree prepare themselves for the realities of war. All this is independent of any knowledge the pupil acquires and, in a sense, is far more important". That is a fairly accurate account, making allowance for age and the limitations of the subject-matter, of the proper function of mathematics in the school; the mathematical lesson should be an introduction to precise and concise argument, and not primarily, as at present, an exercise in memory nor mere drill in dodges, though such drill is of course necessary. Let there be no mistake, the difficulties of teaching the subject in this way are very great, the value being proportionate to the difficulty. It is fatally easy to present definitions and propositions in carefully chosen words, and insist on the pupil memorizing them in order to hoodwink the examiner. But that is not education. Often it is assumed that anybody—the newly-fledged graduate who has had no thought of even his smattering of mathematical dodges since he scraped through school certificate—is a competent teacher of the elements, keeping a couple of pages ahead of his class. It must be constantly remembered that the pupils are getting their first introduction to logical thought, and have to be guided to "distinguish the relevant, seize the point, &c." Meticulous definitions and the formulation of propositions in geometry and algebra should be the outcome of a long, patient process of consideration, criticism, trial, and error, winnowing grain from chaff—how boys love the chaff! And the reward is the pupil's falling cadence: "Oh! I see!", the almost involuntary expression of the thrill of discovery and the aesthetic appreciation of 'sweet reasonableness'.

The prevailing tradition in teaching mathematics has a cast-iron quality, crystalline in its nature; and cast-iron has a way of cracking under sudden stresses. It is time to introduce something of the wrought variety, hammered out afresh and displaying elasticity and capacity to yield to new influences.

It is true that freedom, justice, mercy, and truth are the great words. But justice is the recognition of order; law is the formulation of the same concept, the science of order; and order is the ultimate subject-matter of mathematics. Plato recognized mathematical relations as a fundamental notion for the proper understanding of the world, and since the Renaissance mathematics has been accepted as a proper study for all students. I believe that few headmasters, however, could give a reasoned and convincing account of why we continue to teach a smattering to all boys; they would almost certainly be driven to admit that a subject demanded in nearly all examinations has perforce to be taught. Having themselves been bred in a tradition from which science and mathematics are largely excluded, they surrender their responsibility in the matter to some expert mathematician whose main interest is likely to be the training of experts like himself; the glamour of scholarships blinds him to the needs of those, the vast majority, without special gifts in that direction. For them this plea is put forward, and for them the most effective teacher is the man of many-sided interest who recognizes the importance of mathematics in a truly liberal education.

The need to-day is for a more general philosophical outlook, an interest in man's relation not only to his fellow-man but also to the universe around him: natural philosophy, whose indispensable skeleton is mathematics.

E. ALLAN PRICE.

27 Upland Park Road,
Oxford.

THE SPOKEN WORD

SIR,—Since Miss Fogerty seems unaware that those elementary principles, expounded in her letter, which have some bearing on the theory set forth in *Vowel Sounds in Poetry* are not contradicted by it, I can only conclude that she has misunderstood the book which she reviewed with such asperity, and that my letter on the subject has done nothing to enlighten her. I will not, however, like other unsuccessful pedagogues, cast aspersions on the intelligence of a student, but retire from this discussion gracefully disillusioned as to my powers of exposition. Unlike Hamlet I will not even seek relief for my sorrow in irony.

J. MCCLURE.

Brigton, near Newton Stewart,
Wigtownshire.

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EMPIRE AND FOREIGN NEWS

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN WAR-TIME CHINA

CHINA has always honoured learning, and the educated man in the community is respected by all. This is a tradition that goes back for thousands of years. Even in time of war education has always continued. All that was necessary was to gather a few scholars in a home and teach the classics. However, since China has begun to model her educational system on western lines, and universities and schools have been built, and large staffs and equipment gathered together, it is obviously a more difficult task to maintain education in war-time. Yet her faith in education remained.

At the beginning of the China war it was known that education throughout occupied areas would collapse as it collapsed in Manchuria, and that the educated man would be precluded from exercising any great influence by a system of close supervision, or, if that was ineffective, confinement. There was a long enough period between the Manchu incident and the outbreak of war for the Chinese Government and people to understand the implications of Japanese methods, and, as Japanese armies swept over the country, universities, colleges, and high schools began to migrate to the unexplored West. In this they were encouraged by the Government, and they have been assisted in remarkable ways by this fugitive Government now carrying on so bravely in battered Chungking.

When the war broke out there were one hundred and eight universities and colleges in China. Most of these were in the area which is now invaded by the Japanese. Twelve of these have been able to keep open in foreign concessions, whilst two institutions are open in Peking under the auspices of foreign missions. The rest have left their wonderful buildings, all their furniture, a good deal of their equipment and books, and have moved to West China, continuing their work under almost primitive conditions with a minimum of equipment and a great shortage of books.

At the end of 1940, after three and a half years of war, the Ministry of Education was able to report that there existed one hundred and thirteen higher educational institutions, five more than before the war, and this in spite of the fact that ninety-one of the original institutions had been destroyed or damaged, or otherwise rendered useless. Moreover, the Government was building technical schools, normal schools, and colleges to give increased facilities for training leaders for the work of reconstruction in the undeveloped areas to which the Japanese invasion had compelled them to flee. Before the war there were thirty-one thousand degree students in these universities and colleges. Last year the Chinese Government was able to report fifty-two thousand, and in recent months the increase in student enrolment has been very marked.

The Chinese Government has exercised wonderful foresight. Engaged up to the hilt in resisting the modern trained Japanese army, nevertheless it decided that students should be encouraged to continue their training. It saw that only by maintaining and increasing the number of capable leaders within the nation could continued resistance be maintained. Students were not encouraged to join the army, and refugee students were subsidized by the Government on a bare subsistence level and told to complete their training. That this policy has been of strength to the Chinese people is seen in the development that has taken place in the West in territory that was almost virgin soil. Without these leaders China could not possibly have put up the resistance to the invader that she has done; and, with the output of trained leadership becoming cumulative as the years go by, the worth of this resistance through reconstruction is beginning to tell. This heroic and steadfast people has given a lesson to other nations in time of war that educated men and women are essential for prolonged resistance to an enemy, both for planning and developing the means of resistance, and for maintaining the morale of the people.

A. G. CASTLETON.

JAPAN—MASS TRAINING FOR YOUTHS

THE Education Ministry has issued orders to all prefectural governors, the principals of Government schools of collegiate status, public and private colleges, and the principals of all higher and technical schools throughout Japan that a new system will be enforced for the mass training of students in public service.

Since last autumn the Ministry of Education has insisted upon public service from students, and public-service organizations were set up in all universities, colleges, and higher schools.

In view of the grave emergency, the Education Ministry has decided to impose centralized control of all such organizations, in order to facilitate the mobilizations of students at a moment's notice. The new order is intended to link up all public-service organizations in the schools and universities, and to enable the Education Ministry to control the services much more effectively.

A special headquarters has been set up in the Ministry itself, and the Minister has arranged for local headquarters to be opened throughout the country. In effect, the whole life of each student and scholar in Japan now comes under the control and guidance of the Government.

Still uncertain of what the Ministry was aiming at, a certain amount of uneasiness prevailed. The Minister therefore decided to issue a public statement through unofficial sources. Here it is: "Following the outbreak of the China affair, efforts have been made for the mass training of students, for public service training, and practical training in order to strengthen the system for the training of students in patriotic service.

"The utmost consideration must be given to the vital matter of the training of young men in order to create good subjects who revere the national structure, put into practice their spirit of public service, and serve their country without stinting their bodies.

"The international situation has reached such a state that we cannot relax even for a minute, so that the time has come for all students to exert their united efforts in order to enable the nation to overcome the current crisis. The training of students must be conducted along the most positive lines. All students' public-service organizations must be placed under central control in order that they may be united and able to exert their concerted strength at a moment's notice, and realize a system under which they will be able to shoulder and execute their responsibilities. It is vital to the education of students in these times of emergency to perfect the system of military training, training in agricultural production, and all other types of mass training. With a correct understanding of the needs of the times, we must perfect the training of students, encourage co-operation, further solidarity and all other vital matters relative to the effective training of students."

From this it may be seen that education has been relegated to second place, and that students and pupils in future will learn how to fight, dig, or make munitions rather than the subjects for which they are attending the various institutions.

The reason for this change is not difficult to find if one reads the Japanese Press. Recently, the Kokumin wrote a stinging article in which it stated that students were completely indifferent to the war effort.

"Despite the strong movement to awaken students to the gravity of the times, it cannot be denied that the majority of the people filling beer halls, theatres, and other

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amusement centres are young students who are living lives entirely out of line with the prevailing situation."

The fault, the papers insist, does not lie entirely with the students, but is partly the responsibility of their teachers.

Some schools went so far as to advertise that if a student were admitted he would be freed from military duties, with the result that the number of students grew rapidly. Under the new law, however, such admissions are strictly controlled.

S. H. KAHN.

YOUTH MOVEMENTS—THEIR POSSIBILITIES AND THEIR DANGERS

GUESTS from Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Norway, Poland, Spain, and Sweden were among an audience to hear Dr. Jiří F. Vranek of Czechoslovakia address the Ling Physical Education Association on " Youth Movements—their Possibilities and their Dangers " on Saturday, October 11.

Dr. Vranek considered the problem of the Hitler Youth Movement a grave one. As a definite party institution, accompanied by party politics, cliques, intrigues, and corruption, it was a terrifying instrument of control by the State over the minds and bodies of young people. Free discussion was forbidden and ideological training substituted ; free strolls were replaced by route marches ; force and fear with the threat of the Gestapo and the internment camp were behind a teaching system, the principle of which was that the State was everything and the individual nothing. The Hitler Youth was in fact a sociological device for the destruction of family life and the suppression of individuality. Before peace and order could be established in the world the mind of young Germany must be re-educated.

The voluntary spirit of the Sokol, the gymnastic movement of the Slavonic countries, represented a healthy contrast to the State-controlled, regimented Hitler Jugend. The founder of the Sokol, Dr. Miroslav Tyrš, and his collaborator, Dr. Jindřich Fugner, had regarded physical education as an educational, philosophical, and aesthetic function which should contribute to the welfare of mankind. From a small nucleus originating in Czechoslovakia the Sokol —now declared illegal—had grown to be the largest gymnastic association in the Slavonic countries, attracting the masses by reason of its voluntary character, its non-political, patriotic, and truly democratic principles. In the reconstruction of post-war Europe such a movement would be invaluable as an example of a free yet disciplined organization for youth.

In the Soviet great responsibilities had been laid on young people whose idealism led them to engage in a great deal of social work for the masses. Independence, the power of rational thought, enterprise, and lack of constraint were among the best features of members of the Komsomol, the Pioneers, and the Little Octobrists. Youth had now more influence in Russia than in any other State ; there the Youth Movement, inseparable from education, had been a remarkable cultural factor. In China the work of such organizations as the Y.M.C.A. and the Y.W.C.A. had done much to inculcate a sense of community responsibility ; the Scouts and Guides had been invaluable during the war, while the Youth Section of the New Life Movement was chiefly concerned with the promotion of civic sense. Here again youth organizations had effected much.

In France a variety of different organizations, political and religious, had been engaged in youth work. Dr. Vranek mentioned in particular the Boy Scouts, the Jeunesses Ouvrières Chrétiennes, and the Centre Laïque des Auberges de la Jeunesse. The situation had altered under the Pétain Government, which had made an attempt to control youth as a whole by the establishment of compulsory labour camps as a substitute for military service, in which the chief features were agricultural work and lectures calculated to ' streamline ' the spirit of young people.

Turning to Great Britain, Dr. Vranek spoke warmly of the tradition of youth organizations there and the contribution made to social welfare by the voluntary work of the Scouts, Guides, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., Boys' and Girls' Clubs, and other associations. All elements were working together towards welding the nation into an integrated society aware of its duties towards the younger generation. ' Service for Youth ' was a proof of this realization of the needs of young Britain. He considered that in modern life the family alone was an insufficient guarantee that leisure time was usefully employed ; the State, through central guidance and leadership, must also play its part. But, in return for service from the State, youth must also give service.

What of post-war reconstruction ? We must not follow the criminal example of the Nazis. By exploiting the gullibility of youth, its enthusiasm and its energy, by misusing youth in a shameful manner, they had sprung millions of fanatics on the world. That had been their method of dealing with ' young people without prospects ' after the last war. We must do better than that. We must not conclude a negative peace and leave them to work out their own salvation. On the contrary, we must give them a positive ideal of an ordered human society in which force, if it were used, would be for the purpose of upholding order. Dr. Vranek considered that in such a society there would be a place and responsibility for every young man and every young woman. Their response to the call for service would not be lacking.

BRONWEN LLOYD-WILLIAMS.

NEW MEDIA

FILMS ABOUT OIL—THE SERVICE OF THE PETROLEUM FILMS' BUREAU

OIL in this war has assumed primary importance, and the Government from the very beginning pooled all the oil resources and limited its use. In these circumstances it would not have been surprising to discover that the activities of the Petroleum Films' Bureau had ceased. Instead one finds their facilities unimpaired. This service, from which there can be no immediate hope of profit, can be of great value to schools who must form by far the largest borrowers of the films.

One of the chief points of contention in the use of films for schools is that many films have not been produced primarily for use in schools. Because the quantity of films made specifically for schools is small and their hiring charges are comparatively high, schools have been forced back upon films which really had not a sufficiently large or concise educational content. This is not to deprecate services rendered by commercial firms, because the results from their point of view must have been almost sheer loss. But it is rare to find films which have been commercially sponsored and are, at the same time, educationally satisfying. The films distributed by the Petroleum Films' Bureau, however, do, generally speaking, satisfy educational canons.

The quality which first strikes one is the photography. I do not think that there are any other films of sub-standard stock which have the clarity possessed by these Petroleum films—an important factor where learning is to be the aim. A second feature is the way in which diagrams have been used. In many of the films diagrams and actual pictures are effectively used together.

Some films, *e.g.* " Distillation " or " The First Principles of the Compression Ignition Engine " rely mainly on diagrams used with careful planning and good effect. Many of the films use a development of the diagram—the three-

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dimensional model as is admirably done with the molecular structures of the various grades of oil in " Distillation " and in the " First Principles of The Petrol Engine ". Teachers whose subjects make it possible to use these films must feel grateful to the P.F.B. for showing such a fine teaching sense in their productions. These will, I feel sure, provide the models for future teaching films and incidentally have much that is of immediate use to many technical units in the Forces. Another feature of the twenty-seven films in the catalogue is the section headed " P.F.B. Cinemagazine ". These are produced with all the technical qualities of first-rate commercial " interest " films, and are admirable in themselves or as a lighter addition to a more intensively instructive film. Among the subjects in these Cinemagazines are to be found " Raising Water ", " Oil Tankers ", " Big Game Fishing ", " Wells Clock ", " New Mauretania ", " African Airport ", " Glass Making ", and " Combine Harvester ". Each reel lasting ten minutes treats three subjects. One excellent feature of the Petroleum Films Bureau Service to schools is the provision of two pamphlets, " Notes about Oil " and " Films about Oil ". The latter contains full details of every film in the Library. The notes follow the film treatment very closely and will enable teachers to prepare classes for the films in advance of the actual lessons in which they are to be used, as well as providing very useful summaries which may be used for revision purposes after the films have been shown. The following will give an indication of these synopses :

DISTILLATION

A diagrammatic examination of the composition of crude oil, its separation into various products, and the working of a modern refinery.

35 mm. and 16 mm. sound. 15 minutes.

Crude oil, as it comes out of the earth, is made up almost entirely of carbon and hydrogen combined together in various ways. Carbon exists in many different forms, but one of the most familiar is lamp—black or soot. Hydrogen is an invisible gas. It is lighter than air and is often used to fill balloons.

Chemists call the smallest particle of any substance an atom ; actually atoms are so small that, if they were enlarged so that they could be seen, the oceans of the world would not hold those contained in a small drop of oil.

Atoms combine with each other, and atoms of different substances have different powers of combination. The power of combination in an atom may be represented by giving it arms to link with other atoms ; for instance, a carbon atom has four arms and a hydrogen atom has only one arm. So one atom of carbon can combine with four atoms of hydrogen. Carbon atoms can also link up with other carbon atoms and form chains. The arms that are still free can link up with hydrogen atoms. Thousands of different forms are possible : branch chains, chains bent into rings, rings joined up with chains. Each arrangement of atoms, called a " molecule ", represents a definite substance with its own definite properties.

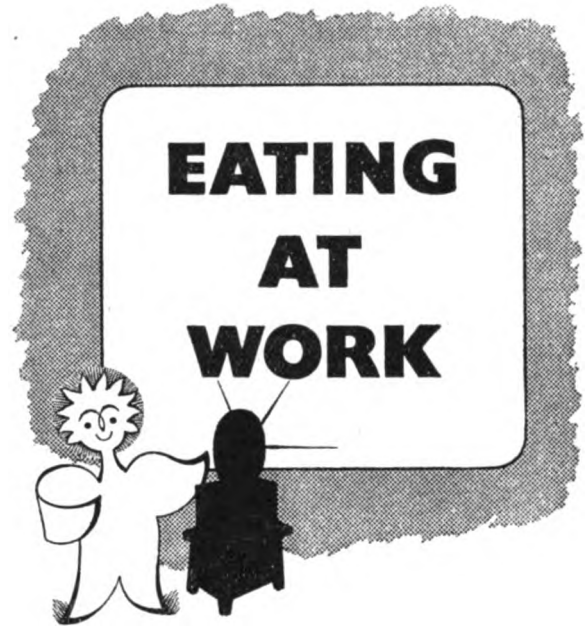
Such details are invaluable for the proper use of these films and one may hope that other companies will follow the lead of the P.F.B. The following is a list of films available from the P.F.B.

" A.B.C. of Oil " ; " Oil from the Earth " ; " The Production of Oil " ; " Distillation " ; " First Principles of Distillation " ; " Paraffin Young " ; " Cargo for Ardrossan " ; " Vital Service " ; " Transfer of Power " ; " Protection of Fruit " ; " P.F.B. Cinemagazines Nos. 1–6 " ; " Airscrew " ; " Turn of the Furrow " ; " Hydraulics " ; " First Principles of the Petrol Engine " ; " Internal Combustion Engine : Four Stroke Cycle " ; " First Principles of The Compression Ignition Engine " ;

(Continued on page 542)

*NEW FILM

FREE to approved borrowers



The newest production in a fine series of films for education and entertainment

This new film deals with a vital war problem—the need for factory canteens. It shows in a most interesting way the planning that goes to give the workers their daily hot meal.

This and other films from the Gas Industry's Film Library (available free to borrowers in 33 mm. and 16 mm. size) are first-class entertainment and have proved popular with audiences of all kinds.

A new catalogue, " Films for Education and Entertainment ", which lists the wide choice of films now available, has just been prepared. Intending borrowers should write at once for a copy to :

THE SECRETARY

THE BRITISH COMMERCIAL GAS ASSOCIATION

Gas Industry House, 1 Grosvenor Place, London, S.W.1

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" Compression Ignition Engine "; " First Principles of Lubrication "; " Lubrication of the Petrol Engine "; " Lubrication "; " Springs ".

The titles indicate to some extent the nature of the films and it will be seen that science is perhaps the subject best represented but geography is a good second, while history in a very wide sense is represented by " Paraffin Young ", " Transfer of Power ", " Vital Service ", and " Cargo for Ardrossan ". The films are suitable for use in senior schools, junior technical schools, in secondary schools, in Army and normal adult education, while more topically the A.T.C. will find many of these films of immense interest and value as will some agricultural colleges and allotment groups.

All teachers who have access to a projector should make full use of the excellent service provided by the Petroleum Films Bureau, 15 Hay Hill, Berkeley Square, London, W. 1.

R. S. MILES.

A New Gas Industry Film.—" Eating at Work," the latest Gas Industry documentary, is a worthy addition to the industry's catalogue. It deals with a subject of the greatest importance at the present time, canteens for the workers. How and where are the men and women working in Britain's war factories to obtain the appetizing and nourishing meals that are essential both to their health and to the maintenance of output ? The answer is in the factories themselves. It is more economical in fuel, food and labour to cook a meal for 1,000 people in one kitchen than for 1,000 gas cookers to be doing the same job in 1,000 homes. It is easier too to plan and produce meals on sound dietetic lines. " Eating at Work " shows us the working of a canteen in a modern factory. The planning of the daily meals, the system evolved to ensure speedy service, the ingenious methods used to offer the workers a choice of dishes without risk of food wastage. Much of the story is told by the catering superintendent herself. The film has an educative message for the large factory that comes under the Government's compulsory order to provide canteens, and the smaller factory in which the problem may at first sight present difficulties. The closing shots of an E.N.S.A. concert and a factory dance show how the provision of a canteen adds in other ways to the workers' amenities.

Nottingham Film School.—A special refresher course in films and other optical aids to education is being organized for lecturers and students at training colleges and university education departments by the British Film Institute. The course will be held at Nottingham from January 5–8, 1942 inclusive. Film displays and lectures in the use of the film in various subjects have been arranged and opportunity will be offered for practice in handling apparatus. The University College has kindly consented to make its hostel available together with lecture and demonstration rooms. Particulars may be obtained from the Secretary, British Film Institute, 4 Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.

TOPICS AND EVENTS

TECHNICAL EDUCATION

PAST, PRESENT, AND . . .

A REPRESENTATIVE gathering of educationists and industrialists met at the home of the Royal Society of Arts in the Adelphi on the 12th of November for the reading of a paper on " Technical Education " by Mr. E. M. Rich, C.B.E., who, until recently, was the Education Officer of the London County Council. The chair was taken by the Right Hon. R. A. Butler, M.P., President of the Board of Education.

Mr. Rich gave an interesting account of the growth of technical education in London. Since the meeting held at the Mansion House in 1876, when the Livery Companies and the City Corporation formed the " City and Guilds of London Institute for the advancement of Technical Education " much has been done. Nevertheless, it is felt by many that technical education has in the past been regarded as the least important branch of what was, in any case, the Cinderella of the social services. Both Mr. Rich and a number of speakers who took part in the subsequent discussion stressed the point that the best of our technical colleges made but a poor showing in regard to the size and nature of the equipment when compared with those found in the U.S.A. and Germany. It is not denied that the quality of the work done in our own technical institutes is high, but for that very reason the service deserves more generous treatment and more ambitious development than it has received in the past.

Those who have worked in the London service know the administrative difficulties caused by the number of county authorities whose boundaries run through thickly-populated districts in Greater London. Mr. Rich deplored these obstructions to progress, and a subsequent speaker urged that technical education should be administered by an authority dealing with industrial districts rather than the artificial boundaries of a county.

Mr. Rich gave ample evidence that students, both full-time day and part-time evening, are forthcoming when accommodation, equipment, and teachers are provided, and he paid a special tribute to the work of Junior Technical Schools, emphasizing that they provided a type of education in no way inferior in cultural value to that given in secondary schools. Yet he found parents still biased in favour of secondary schools, as leading to black-coated jobs. One indication of the value of the Junior Technical Schools was quoted. In the serious trade depression of 1931, ex-Junior-Technical School boys were able to be transferred from one type of work to another, and this versatility kept a very large proportion of them in work when so many others of the same age were condemned to long spells of unemployment.

While no one doubts the good work being done in part-time evening classes, it is clear that this is an unsatisfactory state of things which will be remedied only when all employers (instead of a very small minority) allow time during working hours for their young employees to take systematic courses of instruction at recognized technical colleges. This raises the question of what is to be done when the school-leaving age is raised to 15 and Day Continuation Schools are established for those between 15 and 18. There was general agreement that, if these measures are to be a success, uniform compulsion and no exemptions will be necessary conditions. When the Day Continuation Schools were attempted in 1921, they were doomed to failure by the element of local option in the Act. In Greater London there were adjoining areas with different policies. This mistake must not be repeated.

Although the programme for the post-war reconstruction of education has not yet been formulated, there are encouraging signs. Among these is the fact that the President of the Board of Education was willing to spare the time, when Parliament was in session, to preside at a meeting dealing exclusively with technical education.

Another encouraging sign is the prompt action of the Board in putting into effect the recommendations of the Technical Personnel Committee under the chairmanship of Lord Hankey. Under this scheme technical colleges throughout the country are asked to make provision for full-time day courses in a number of specific branches of engineering (other than radio) extending over six months. These courses will provide intensive courses for men with-

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drawn from industry at an ' appropriate level ' so that they can return to their firms at a higher level to replace specially skilled men who will then be made available for the Services.

Lord Hankey's Committee has also asked that similar facilities be provided for selected men from the Services to be given this further technical training so that they may return to the Services qualified for employment later as technical officers.

The ' appropriate level ' in both cases will be that of the Ordinary National Certificate in the branch of engineering concerned and, while the syllabuses for these special courses will be issued by the Board, their content will be substantially that of the Higher National Certificate.

The cost of this scheme will be borne by the State, and in the case of civilians a maintenance grant will be made to the men selected. This grant will be £160 per annum in London and £130 per annum elsewhere for those men who have to live in lodgings. Where men are able to live at home they may do so, when the grants will be £90 and £75 respectively.

This excellent scheme recognizes a principle which, one may fervently hope, will be maintained, with suitable modifications, in times of peace.

A. H. STUART.

Board of Education Publications.—*Circulars* 1556*B* and 1556*C* give more information about clothes rationing. *Circular* 1556*B* deals with the issue of supplementary coupons for certain categories of children, and *Circular* 1556*C* with instruction in clothes economy.

Circular 1567 entitled " The Nutrition of School Children ", outlines further measures which local education authorities are urged to take to secure and maintain a high standard of nutrition among school children. The chief of these are the provision of school meals on a much larger scale than at present, and an increase in the number of children taking school milk from the present figure of 60 per cent to as near 100 per cent as may be possible.

Circular 1568 supplements the information given in *Circular* 1471 of July 14, 1939, relating to pre-nursing courses in secondary and technical schools. Applications received up to the present for the approval of such courses have been fewer than was expected.

Circular 1569 refers to the increasing difficulty in obtaining supplies of school milk in one-third pint bottles. A large proportion of the school supplies must be delivered in pint or quart bottles or possibly larger containers, and the circular contains some notes and suggestions on the handling of milk supplies in the schools.

Circular 1570 refers to the serious increase in the number of fatal road accidents since the outbreak of the war. During the twelve months ended August 31, 1941, 1,494 children under the age of 15 were killed on the roads of this country, an increase of 49 per cent over the number of children killed during the corresponding pre-war period. The Board strongly urge that renewed and increased road-safety training should be included as a definite and regular part of the curriculum of all schools, and ask that full use should be made of the valuable suggestions contained in Chapter VII of the Report of the Inter-departmental Committee on Road Safety among School Children. Authorities are also asked to arrange for the opening of school playgrounds and playing fields outside school hours, especially in congested districts.

Circular 1571 provides information on the supply of food to school canteens and on the food required for school dinners.

Administrative Memorandum No. 329 describes the items now added to the list of equipment given in *Administrative Memorandum No.* 319. Equipment may be obtained by local education authorities from the pool established by the Ministry of Food.

Administrative Memorandum No. 330 gives guidance on the provision of uncooked midday meals at schools which have no cooking facilities.

Administrative Memorandum No. 323 states that the Ministry of Food has agreed to register school canteens as priority establishments, thus giving them the benefit of the priority arrangements made with regard to certain unrationed foods.

Administrative Memorandum No. 324 outlines the steps to be taken to ensure that, so far as possible, schools and other educational institutions are provided with the supplies of fuel necessary to enable them to continue functioning during the winter.

Administrative Memorandum No. 325 gives particulars of the scheme of the Ministry of Labour and National Service for the training of disabled men and women, both those discharged from the Forces and also civilians, and primarily, but not exclusively, those who have received injuries in the course of the war.

Administrative Memorandum No. 326 summarizes the main subjects and questions covered by the Board of Education's memorandum on post-war education. (See " Notes and Comments ", page 517.)

Administrative Memorandum No. 328 sets out the arrangements which have been made with the Ministry of Food for the supply of rationed foods to local units of the Youth Service, whether provided by local education authorities or voluntary organizations.

D.P.R. Memorandum No. 4 states that in view of the present heavy demands upon man-power, the Board are no longer in a position to entertain applications for the deferment of service of organizers and instructors in physical training. This decision applies also to men who are serving with, or who, on registration, expressed a preference for service with, the Royal Navy.

Committee on Financial Adjustments.—The Second Report of this Committee, appointed to consider the problems of adjusting between authorities the expenditure incurred by them in respect of evacuated school children, has now been issued by the Board of Education. In general, the Committee reviewed their first report and considered the new problems created by the more recent evacuations.

It is proposed that from April 1, 1941, responsibility for the following should rest with the evacuating authority :

(*a*) Pupils in respect of whom a billeting allowance is paid or payable under present or future evacuation schemes of the Ministry of Health ;

(*b*) Pupils of whom one parent resides in, or is a rent-payer or direct rate-payer in respect of residential premises in the evacuating area ;

(*c*) Children of a parent who has left the evacuating area owing to his place of employment having been moved by the directions of his employer or of a Government department, from causes arising out of the war.

Cases which fall outside the above classes should be regarded as the responsibility of the receiving authority. (H.M. Stationery Office, 2d. net.)

Armistice Day, 1941.—Following is the text of a message to the schools of Great Britain from the American Ambassador, Mr. John G. Winant :

" It is now twenty-three years ago to-day that the last war ended. Like this war it was a war of defence against aggressor nations that were determined by force to take over the homeland of other peoples. We felt then that it was a war to defend governments ' of the people, by the people and for the people ' against dictatorship and ruthlessness, and many of us believed it was ' a war to end war '. We hoped that future generations would be spared the slaughter and tragedy of senseless killing, and that out of the sacrifice of millions would come a just and permanent peace.

" We put aside Armistice Day in memory of those who gave life that these things might be and to keep fresh in our minds those things for which men died.

" The same aggressor nation that forced the fight last

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time is again the invader and the aggressor. We who are older are deeply sorry that we failed to rid the world of war. We had hoped better things for you—for you who carry the burden this time—but we ask that you remember the price men paid hoping that all might be well. Twenty years of peace seems so short a time measured by the sacrifice, but we still believe that, if peace could have been pursued as selflessly as men gave generously in the war, permanent peace might have been a reality.

" And yet we know from hard experience that only through victory can we look forward once again to the hopes of those who already have paid their full measure of devotion—whose short dreams may still be visioned in a new world order in which fair play and a kindly justice prevail—provided we do not flinch ; that we carry forward the brave tradition that memory brings so close to us on this war Armistice Day.

" We have learned already that modern war strikes not only at the armed forces but also at civilian populations, not only the soldier is in jeopardy of life and limb, but women and children as well, all walks of life are rudely interrupted, and everybody everywhere must accept the penalties as well as the bravely-met challenge. This is no less true of the boys and girls than of the men and women of the allied countries. We know that in all lands the first door of opportunity opens into the schoolroom, that, in spite of all that could be done, youth to-day is seriously handicapped here because of evacuated areas, closed schools, fewer teachers because of the call to war work. We hope you who are young will try to minimize this lack of chance, doing more with less.

" We can never call back the gallant dead : but we can see that they did not die in vain. And there is one thing about which you may be certain—about which there is no doubting—they would want above all else to see you ' carry on '. Try and remember their hopes for you, and do all you might have done, and be all that you might ever have been, that they may rest in peace and in unbroken faith in you."

Food Education.—Speaking at the opening of a refresher course for inspectors and training college staff concerned with food education, Mr. R. A. Butler, President of the Board of Education, revealed that at least two million people had attended cookery demonstrations arranged under the Food Education Campaign. " Many more people ", he said, " have attended public meetings and exhibitions. There have been 350 refresher courses for teachers, health visitors and social workers. Meetings arranged by the gas companies have registered 330,000 attendances and the electricity companies' meetings half a million attendances. Demonstrations, normally for groups of 15, 20, or 30 at a time, had been given in a market place stall, a mobile van, a main street shop, the local clinic, the forecourt of a block of flats, or the kitchen of an ordinary house on a surburban estate."

War-time Nurseries.—At a conference on War-time Nurseries in London, Mr. R. A. Butler said that three Ministries were all driving forward with the scheme to establish war nurseries for children from 2 to 5. Each department had its own particular interest, and they were all agreed on the need for a rapid development of this service. The Ministry of Health wanted to look after the health and welfare of the children; the Ministry of Labour was interested in the vital problem of getting women into war industries and caring for their young children during the daytime ; the Board of Education wanted to extend the benefits of education to children of this age, and had proved, by its scheme for meals and milk for children at school, that it wished to cooperate in making war-time provision for young children, and relieve parents of some of their responsibilities. " Our motto shall be ", said Mr. Butler, " The 2 to 5 in war shall thrive." Mr. Butler said that in order to be able to draw upon a pool of assistants, girls and women, who were readily adaptable for work in nurseries, it was necessary for the Child Care Reserve Training Scheme to be developed on a big scale and he appealed to all local education authorities to make provision for the training of suitable people. He pointed out that women employed in nurseries would not be called upon to take up any other kind of war work and the Board of Education would pay half the cost of the scheme. This scheme was something " which not only secures the happiness and normal development of the rising generation in war-time, but is also a form of service which frees their mothers to do war work ".

London County Council.—At a recent meeting of the Education Committee, the Chief Inspector submitted a long report on the education of London children in reception areas, reviewing the situation in the light of the longer and fuller experience gained in the two years since the first big exodus of children. The main changes have been the removal of parties in the summer of 1940 from east, south-east, and south coastal areas to the interior and to the west, the continuous stream of children returning to London, and the large-scale further evacuations from London as the result of the Government campaign and following the severe bombing attacks of September 1940. Considerable readjustment was necessary, but the situation has now become fairly stable, though the steady drift back to London continues. Some 250,000 children are still out of London. Some original parties still work as school units ; new parties formed in 1940 from children belonging to various schools work as independent units with teachers as a rule strange to the children, but lack the original cohesion and spirit of a pre-war school ; some aggregations are merged in local schools ; and there are small groups or even individuals working in local schools with no London teachers on the staff.

Of these the first is the most satisfactory as regards work done, tone, and relations between teachers and children both in and out of school. The second type of group is less stable, being partly made up of ' professional evacuees ' who have visited many parts of the country and regard their present school as a temporary resting-place. The merged groups combine satisfactorily with the local school, though from the London point of view the loss of school identity is a drawback. For one thing, it usually involves the return to London of the head teacher.

The main losses consequent upon evacuation are inadequate or unsuitable premises ; absence of a hall and special rooms for science and other subjects ; lower standards of equipment ; poor sanitary arrangements ; constant reorganization of classes ; all-range schools ; wide age-ranges in classes ; lack of books ; and lack of opportunities for games and other out-of-school activities. Against these can be set gains arising from smaller classes ; closer relations with teachers outside school hours ; more individual study ; new types of work, *e.g.* gardening and practical geography ; development of self-reliance ; practical work such as boot-repairing and decoration has been undertaken ; and many children are living in improved conditions.

Other points noted are improved physical well-being, reflected in the mental vigour and alertness of the children ; the great advantages of residential schools in large houses ; and the valuable contributions towards the war effort being made by the children. The way in which teachers have responded to the extra calls made upon them, and the helpful co-operation of local bodies and individuals, are fully recognized.

Playing Fields.—Steps are already being taken to ensure that greater facilities for recreation shall be available after the war. The London and Greater London Playing Fields Association has submitted a petition to Lord Reith and Mr. Arthur Greenwood pointing out that

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the position has gradually become worse since 1925. Owing to the rapid development of Greater London it is estimated that within the ten miles radius from Charing Cross the total area of undeveloped land suitable for the playing of games has shrunk to less than 4,000 acres, whereas at least 25,000 acres are required in addition if reasonable needs are to be met. It is therefore suggested that all undeveloped land, more especially private sports grounds and low-lying land shall, if suitable, be earmarked for recreational purposes; that in the East, South-east, and other crowded London areas in which enemy action has necessitated large-scale reconstruction, adequate sites should be reserved for children's playgrounds; that grant aid should be forthcoming in order to encourage local authorities to acquire additional playing fields; and that all temporary allotments in public open spaces and playing fields should be given up as soon as possible after the war, and the land again prepared for recreation. We think that every support should be given to this movement.

The Institute of Marine Engineers. — Examinations for admission to Associate Membership and Graduateship of the Institute of Marine Engineers will be held on June 1 to 8, 1942. Admission to Studentship is gained by passing or obtaining exemption from the Common Preliminary Examination of the Engineering Joint Examination Board. This examination will be held on April 14 to 17 and on October 6 to 9, 1942. The examinations are held in London and other centres in Great Britain. A scholarship, valued at £100 per annum and tenable for three years, is offered by the General Committee of Lloyd's Register of Shipping. The scholarship will be awarded on the results of a competitive examination to be held by the Institute in May, 1942, and is intended to assist marine engineering students to take a university course in engineering subjects. The age limit is 18 years to 23 years. The closing date for entries is April 8, 1942. Full particulars of the syllabuses and copies of previous examination papers for all the above examinations may be obtained on application to the Secretary, The Institute of Marine Engineers, 73 Amersham Road, High Wycombe, Bucks.

A Successful Experiment.—Toward the end of October the National Book Council organized at the Malden Central Library a Children's Book Week, during which selected children from schools in the neighbourhood visited the junior room during school hours to hear talks on books. These talks were given by a number of well-known children's writers.

Miss Rose Fyleman gave the children some helpful advice about authorship, emphasizing the necessity for originality and deprecating the practice of modelling one's work on another author's. On the choice of subject she said: "Write about those things which interest you; the things which you have yourself experienced. Mumps or measles, if you like; or chocolate. Anything that has made an impression on you. *Don't* choose your subject because you think your writing of it will sound impressive!" Mr. Walter De La Mare read some thirteen of his poems for young people. At every one of the talks a selection of books was displayed on the tables, and these were eagerly handled by the children. The librarian reports that the junior room has since been filled each evening between the hours of four and six. All of the boys and girls who attended the talks were invited to enter for an essay competition on the subject "Books I Like", for which prizes of book tokens were offered by the N.B.C. The number of entries was encouraging.

The week ended with a Children's Book Exhibition on the Saturday, which was attended by hundreds of eager children.

In view of the success of this experiment, the N.B.C. hope to arrange for Children's Book Weeks all over the country and they invite applications from schools and libraries.

County Libraries.—Reviewing the work of the County Libraries during the second year of war, *The School Government Chronicle* is able to record another year of steady progress in spite of many difficulties. The way in which this movement has fitted itself to war-time conditions reflects great credit upon the personnel of this valuable service. Many libraries record a substantial increase in the number of issues to regular borrowers apart from the provision of books for evacuated schools and to troop camps and recreation centres. By the death of Colonel J. M. Mitchell, one of the representatives of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust on the Executive Committee of the National Central Library from 1924 to 1939, the movement lost a staunch friend.

Much of the work done by the National Central Library has been for the benefit of Government Departments and persons working directly in connexion with the war effort. It is important to maintain the public morale by providing both cultural and recreational facilities, among which the provision of books takes a prominent place. The library has organized, in co-operation with the Scottish Central Library for Students, a service for the supply of educational books to men serving in the army in all parts of the British Isles. Similar service has been rendered to the R.A.F., the Royal Navy, and the Mercantile Marine. This help has been much appreciated, especially by men who are trying to continue their professional studies. Aliens in internment camps and members of the forces of Czecho-Slovakia, Greece, and other allied countries, as well as civilian refugees, have been supplied with books in their own language. The Treasury felt compelled to reduce their grant from £4,800 to £3,500, but the Rockefeller Foundation came to the rescue with an emergency grant of $8,500.

Black List Schools in Wales.—Mr. Butler stated in the House of Commons, in reply to a question by Sir W. Jenkins, that of the 268 schools in Wales and Monmouthshire which were included in the black list issued in 1925, 89 remained on the list, and that he was aware that in addition to these a large number must be regarded as unsatisfactory judged by modern standards. Before the outbreak of war the Board were pressing for improvement or replacement of black list schools, but since then only comparatively small improvements of an exceptionally urgent character had been practicable. The question had called attention to the need for better sanitation, lighting and ventilation, plentiful water supply, and more open spaces for recreation. The need for drastic treatment of a large number of schools immediately after the war is only too evident.

National Association of Labour Teachers. — The Executive Committee of this Association has issued a memorandum on "Post-War Reconstruction in Education". Among the points made are that all education below that of the universities and the higher technical institutions should be governed by one code; no class should contain more than 30 children; education should be compulsory without exemptions to the age of 16; there should be a free midday meal and free milk for all children; attendance at day continuation schools should be compulsory from 16 to 18 for a minimum of two half-days per week; two salary scales, graduate and non-graduate, would represent an important step towards unification of the profession; while there should be a break at the age of 11, all children to the age of 13 plus should receive a general education in the same school; there should then be differentiation, but with the different courses in the same multilateral school; all training colleges should be associated with a university, and segregation of intending teachers should cease; a

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unified system of education can be secured only by complete public control, instead of the existing dual control; no church should have the right to use the schools for denominational religious teaching.

Joint Advisory Committee.—By agreement, the Joint Committee of the Headmasters' Association and the Association of Education Committees is to be enlarged so as to include representatives of the Association of Headmistresses, who, like the headmasters, will have four representatives on the Joint Committee with power to co-opt when special knowledge of any particular matter under discussion is required.

Shropshire Education Lectures. — The Shropshire Education Committee announce an interesting series of lectures which endeavour to relate the work of our schools to the world outside. Two of the lectures were given last month, the first by Sir Richard Livingstone on "Criticisms and Suggestions on Modern Education", the second by Professor F. Clarke on "Reality in School and Life". On January 17 next Mr. P. H. B. Lyon, Headmaster of Rugby, will speak on "Religious Education in the World of To-day".

Anniversaries.—King's School, Canterbury, now at St. Austell, Cornwall, has this year attained its quatercentenary of its reconstitution by Henry VIII in 1541. It claims to be the oldest school in the country, and has existed in some form as the Archbishop's school at Canterbury from the seventh century. This year also marks the coming-of-age anniversary of the R.A.F. College, Cranwell. Since the outbreak of the present war, however, Cranwell, like Woolwich and Sandhurst, has been closed. Berkhamsted School has also just celebrated the 400th anniversary of its foundation by Dr. John Munt, Dean of St. Paul's. The King, who is a patron of the school, sent a message wishing it continued prosperity. But for the war the College of S. Mark and S. John, Chelsea, would also now be celebrating its centenary. We join cordially in the many congratulations that these institutions have received.

Mr. C. Pendlebury.—Remembering the days when *Pendlebury's Arithmetic* was by far the best available work on the subject, we must offer a sincere tribute to the memory of the author, who died recently at the age of 87. For 33 years, from 1877 to 1910, he was Senior Mathematical Master at St. Paul's School—an astonishing record of service—and for many years he was Hon. Secretary of the Mathematical Association. He had been an Emeritus Member of the I.A.A.M. since 1916.

Appointments.—The Council of the Girls' Public Day School Trust, Ltd., have appointed Miss M. D. Yardley, M.A. Oxon. (Final Honours English Language and Literature, Class I) to be Head Mistress of Sydenham High School as from January, 1942.

Publisher's Announcement.—A few months ago George Allen and Unwin Ltd. absorbed the educational publishing firm of Elkin Mathews & Marrot. They now announce that they have acquired the old established business of Thomas Murby & Co. Mr. G. H. Freeman, the owner of Murby's, who died about a year ago, specialized in scientific and in particular geological publications, and Mr. Stanley Unwin tells us that his firm intends to continue the geological business under the Murby imprint.

Training Course for Club Leaders.—The National Association of Boys' Clubs announce a training course for club leaders and organizers to be held at Reading University from January 3 to 10, 1942. Full details and forms of application may be obtained from the N.A.B.C. Branch Office, 20 Regent Street, Nottingham, and must be returned by December 8.

PETER SANDIFORD

WE regret to record the death on October 12 of Dr. Peter Sandiford, Professor of Educational Psychology in Toronto University. Professor Sandiford was born at Heyfield in Derbyshire. He won his way to Manchester University and was trained as a teacher under Sir Michael Sadler, Dr. J. J. Findlay and H. L. Withers. He was appointed Lecturer in Education, and secured a Fellowship, at Columbia University, New York. He won his Ph.D. with a thesis on *The Training of Teachers in England*, which was published in 1910 with one on *The Training of Teachers in Germany* by Dr. I. L. Kandel and *The Training of Teachers in France* by Dr. Farrington, and was appointed to the Chair of Educational Psychology at Toronto. He made up his mind to become a Canadian and to throw himself into the development of the education of Canada, a resolve to which he adhered in spite of some tempting invitations from Great Britain. His book, *The Mental and Physical Life of School Children*, was followed in 1928 by his great work on *Educational Psychology*. In this work he took his stand definitely as a behaviourist. He discarded introspective psychology because he thought that it could not provide the factual data demanded by natural science. Scientific investigation needed accurate measurement. To secure this Sandiford devoted himself to the measurement of intelligence and his contributions to *The Educational Survey of British Columbia* (A.D. 1925) and other surveys show the value of this new method. Owing to his clear and objective method, his diagrams and models, he was in great demand as a lecturer in the States as well as Canada. The Carnegie Corporation made grants in aid of his experimental work.

J. L. PATON.

The January, 1942, Number of
THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATION
will give special attention to the TEACHING OF ENGLISH. It will include the following articles:

ORAL TRAINING IN ENGLISH. By Sir Philip Hartog, K.B.E.

'OFFICIALESE'. By a former Director of Education.

THE KING'S ENGLISH. By Taylor Dyson, Headmaster of Almondbury Grammar School, Huddersfield.

SPELLING REFORM. By Walter Ripman.

ENGLISH AS A WORLD LANGUAGE. By J. H. Bennetton, Hon. Secretary, National Council on Commercial Education.

TEACHING APPRECIATION OF POETRY THROUGH VERSE COMPOSITION. By Morris Marples.

THE MUSE AT SCHOOL. By Margaret Diggle, English Lecturer, Gloucestershire Training College of Domestic Science.

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* The Board of Education Act (1899) did not come into force until the appointment of a 'President'. This took place after the end of the South African War (1902). Question 6 is the only one with a catch.

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NEW BOOKS

THE FUTURE IN EDUCATION

By Professor F. A. CAVENAGH, King's College, London

"WHY are we an uneducated nation and how can we become an educated nation?" Sir Richard Livingstone's answers* to these two questions are, briefly, (*a*) that the great majority leave school at an age when their education has hardly begun, and (*b*) that real education, since it depends on experience of life, must come at a later stage: hence the solution lies in a great expansion of adult education. With those two broad conclusions nobody will disagree. The nineteenth-century conception of 'elementary' education, as something complete in itself, is so obsolete that the term itself is being discarded. "To cease education at 14 is as unnatural as to die at 14": Sir Richard's epigram will find general approval—though a coroner might inquire what exactly 'unnatural' means in the context. So, too, the need for vastly increased adult education has long been recognized. As far back as 1919 the Report of the Adult Education Committee laid down, in emphatic capitals, a "necessary conclusion" that remains unrealized. The actual words are worth recalling: "Adult Education must not be regarded as a luxury for a few exceptional persons here and there, nor as a thing which concerns only a short span of early manhood, but . . . is a permanent national necessity, an inseparable aspect of citizenship, and therefore should be both universal and lifelong. That the opportunity for Adult Education should be spread uniformly and systematically over the whole community, as a primary obligation on that community in its own interest and as a chief part of its duty to its individual members, and that therefore every encouragement and assistance should be given to voluntary organizations, so that their work, now necessarily sporadic and disconnected, may be developed and find its proper place in the national educational system." Brave words! Are they, I wonder, remembered by two members of the Committee, Mr. E. Bevin and Mr. Arthur Greenwood?

"Both universal and lifelong": we have far to travel before that ideal is reached. Sir Richard Livingstone maps out a road which would at least take us part of the way. It follows the lines of the Danish Folk High Schools, which had such striking success in transforming an uncouth peasantry into an educated people, and, indirectly, brought about their co-operative system of farming. It is hardly necessary to remark on the different conditions in Denmark and England. Apart from their obvious differences of occupation, Denmark, at the time when the People's Colleges were founded, was a defeated country; Grundtvig deliberately set his people the ideal of "making good from within what has been lost from without" by "a simple and cheerfully active existence on earth in the service of the country". There is a sad irony about their secondary aim, to fortify Denmark against German aggression. Yet, in spite of these very important differences, there is much that we can learn from the Danish colleges. Sir Richard lays particular stress on the benefits of residence—comradeship, and the freedom from distraction found in pleasant country surroundings. "Let them be a family of their own, talking, learning, reading, playing, dancing, singing—by all means singing much together." It is a pleasing picture; and certainly the success of our own few residential colleges for adult students warrants further development. But it should be borne in mind that not every adult finds such communal life congenial, just as not every boy is suited to a boarding-school; we are still apt to be hypnotized by Newman's purple patch about the university that "merely brought a number of young men together for three or four years and then sent them away". Nor would the "living word", on which Grundtvig set such store, evoke the same reverence from English students, who on the whole prefer learning from books; and, as it is, public libraries play a very considerable part in our adult education. Still, it would be an enormous advance if local colleges, some at least of them residential, were set up in every region, assigned definitely to adult students. The plan, as Sir Richard points out, is in no way impracticable: the cost would not be prohibitive, and there will be many large country-houses lying derelict after the war. And to free men for a period of education ought, on paper, to be as simple as freeing them for military training; whether it will actually be so depends on the general will of the nation. Sir Richard Livingstone goes a step beyond Grundtvig in proposing refresher courses for 'educated' people, civil servants, professional men and women, &c. That, too, is a most admirable suggestion. It would bring new life and stimulus to the universities; and its effects on the spirit and on the efficiency of the nation cannot even be guessed at. Again, if we have the will, this too can be accomplished.

And yet, were all this achieved, there would remain a huge gap: *universal* lifelong education would be nowhere in sight, for only a fringe of the population would be touched. In the elementary field universal education was attained only by compulsion; and, as it would be merely fatuous to propose compulsory education for adults, some other approach must be found. The solution surely lies in adopting a far wider interpretation of 'adult education'. If it is to be really universal and lifelong, if all men and women, of all social classes and all levels of intelligence, of the most diverse tastes and capacities, are to be brought within the fold, then, clearly, adult education must be regarded as including all, or almost all, the pursuits in which men and women are interested. One is bound to say 'almost all', for there are some activities and some 'passivities' that by no stretch of language could be called educational. The line cannot be rigidly drawn, since it depends on one's own inclinations: each of us will exclude for others the sort of things we don't like ourselves. And Sir Richard Livingstone for his part would seem to exclude, broadly speaking, everything that lies outside books.

"Education. But what education?" he asks, and replies that "one clue is the old conception of a liberal education". And this, he continues, comprises "the study of the material universe, and the study of man as a sentient, thinking and spiritual being", in fact just what Matthew Arnold in his day epitomized as "man and his world". That sounds comprehensive enough; yet for both these distinguished humanists it is 'man' that really counts. "The elements of different sciences can be taught," says Sir Richard, "but it is even more desirable to bring home to the student the meaning and importance of science in human life." Even the study of man turns out to be pretty much what Arnold called "getting to know the best that has been thought and said in the world": in fact, the old classical tradition. This is not the place to argue the case for or against the study of the classics; but it is relevant to maintain that 'culture' does not begin and end with the ancient world. A select and expensively-trained minority will always, let us hope, keep alive the knowledge of Greece and Rome; but for the masses culture must have more indigenous roots. Such a platitude seems hardly worth stating; yet Sir Richard, after quite justifiably contrasting with our cinema "the drama which the whole Athenian people watched in the bright March weather millenia ago", continues with the amazing question "what fraction of our masses would sit through a performance of the *Trilogy* or

(*Continued on page 550*)

* **The Future in Education.** By Sir RICHARD LIVINGSTONE. (3s. 6d. Cambridge University Press.)

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the *Philoctetes* "? *Hamlet* at the Old Vic would have been more to the point, though even *Hamlet* is some 300 years old. Whereas the "whole Athenian people" (with the exception of the considerable slave population) were watching a contemporary play, based on a plot familiar to them from childhood, to say nothing of free seats (painfully hard they must have become), a day's holiday, and a semi-religious atmosphere. They were not asked to transport themselves to some foreign clime, distant in time and space, intelligible only after long years of specialized study. No; the culture of a people is a native and spontaneous growth, making a direct and untutored appeal to all alike. It requires no bolstering up by endowments, carries no social prestige, and is of little financial benefit; for an Oxford divine once let the cat out of the bag about the study of Greek literature, which, he remarked, "not only elevates above the vulgar herd, but leads not infrequently to positions of considerable emolument".

Does this mean throwing overboard the traditional 'culture', and cutting people off from the best that has been said and thought? Not at all; but it does mean recognizing, as the Spens Report does in another connexion, that this culture cannot be thrust down the throats of many; and further, that the right approach, at any rate for unschooled adults, lies through literature that is here and now: from appreciating that, they may desire to know what has gone before. And fortunately our age is not destitute of popular literature and art. From many examples take the 'Art *By* the People' exhibitions, and the working-class writing now springing up in factories, mines, fire-stations, wardens' posts, and barrack-rooms, and appearing in *e.g. The Penguin New Writings*. Not to be compared with Sophocles or Thucydides or Virgil? Of course not; but they are of this age, as were those mightier writers of theirs.

Nor can it be denied that there are many alert and intelligent persons who, like Huckleberry Finn, "don't take no stock of dead people", and who are convinced that seeking lessons from history is no more than an elegant pastime. "That which is past is gone", wrote Bacon, "and irrevocable; and wise men have enough to do, with things present and to come: Therefore, they do but trifle with themselves, that labour in past matters." It has been a constant claim that the study of general principles, as illustrated on the small stage of the Greek *polis*, was the best preparation for the modern statesman; yet we might be in a happier position to-day if some of our rulers (I name no names) had studied *Mein Kampf* as carefully as the *Republic* or the *Politics*. Here again the argument is not directed against the study of history: that would be completely stupid. But it is a denial of two common beliefs—that every one is by nature interested in the past, and that wisdom necessarily results from the study of history. The latter claim is of course but one example of the formal-training fallacy, that occupies so large a space in modern educational theory. It is only fair to say that Sir Richard avoids, or rather carefully skirts the edge of, this common pitfall. "Studies lead to specific knowledge", he writes, "but, quite apart from that, they are a training, varying with each subject, in the art of using the mind *in kindred fields*." And again, "If anyone studies a subject to any purpose, it improves the quality and powers of his mind *for certain cognate uses*, even if he remembers little or nothing of it." The words that I have ventured to italicize save the statements from the indiscriminate claims of transfer that are so unjustifiable. Even so, it cannot too often be repeated that even between related pursuits there is no necessary and automatic transfer; it must be worked for, consciously and deliberately. Luckily, such 'mental training' is possible, otherwise the greater part of school education would be reduced *ad absurdum*.

Leaving however this matter of 'culture', I would add that education includes much that falls outside that term, whatever meaning is attached to it. It is nowadays a commonplace to say that liberal and technical studies are not antithetical; the notion, or perhaps rather the feeling, that there is something vulgar and degrading about vocational education is a legacy from aristocratic Greeks. For thousands of adults education will arise out of, or be connected with, their work; our earliest attempts at adult education, in the mechanics' institutes, were based on this principle, though they interpreted it too rigidly. Thousands again will find their approach to education through recreational activities in which they take part; it would be not merely pedantic but mischievous to deny the name of education to any pursuit just because it can also be called entertainment. It will be educative in so far as it is progressive and constructive, requiring effort and thought. No list need be given, since every reader can supply examples for himself. The point to emphasize is that all these miscellaneous and practical interests will always bulk most largely in adult education; books, even when made significant by the experience of life, will remain a minority concern. One incidental benefit of the war is that many of us academic people have been thrown into contact with 'uneducated' men and women, and have found again and again that our bookish knowledge is of little avail in situations where practical sense and handiness are required; nor have the 'educated' any marked superiority in patience, kindliness, good humour, and innate manners. All this is perhaps not worth saying, since nobody would think of denying it. Yet I cannot help feeling that Sir Richard lays undue stress on books and their contents; if that is what adult education means, then it will never be universal. One can't have it both ways.

Sir Richard Livingstone's main theme is "the pressing problem of giving the masses of the nation some higher education"; his remarks on other types of education are incidental, and many of them appear to be based on little first-hand knowledge of modern schools. In particular, it is a pity that he should have included as a postscript a criticism of secondary education, for it is not merely, as he says, "unconnected with" the main subject, but is directly opposed to what goes before. In the second chapter he maintains that children have not the knowledge of life requisite for understanding history, literature, political science, or philosophy. On the contrary, "certain subjects need no experience of life for their full comprehension; among these are mathematics, languages, the sciences, and some aspects of geography. . . . These subjects are normally indicated for the young". Without pausing to inquire how French or Latin can be distinguished as languages from the literature written in them, or whether "mathematics is purely abstract and theoretic and does not spring from life", we note that such subjects should form the chief part of the school curriculum—whether the secondary school is intended is not clear. "I am not trying to banish history and literature and kindred subjects from the education of the young. I am only urging that we should realize the difficulties and limitations—the important limitations—of their study in youth." There is, of course, much truth in this view—though not to the extent of accepting Grundtvig's sweeping dictum "the period of boyhood is not the right school-time". We go as far wrong in imposing on youngsters studies that they are unripe for as we do in imposing on adults a culture that is alien to them.

But, in the postscript, where the argument is that our age has lost its soul, the values of school subjects are reversed. They are now classified as means and ends. Mathematics has ceased to be purely abstract and theoretic. "The pupil learns it in order to become an engineer or an accountant or to add up marks or his house-books or for some similar purpose." The other subjects that before were indicated as proper studies for the young, "languages, science, geography, economics, sewing, or cookery", now take a back seat. "I do not question the importance of these subjects: all are elements in the nourishment of the human

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being, but they are destitute, or almost destitute, of this essential vitamin," *i.e.* are not " concerned with the supreme ends of life ". There now turn out to be only four subjects that really count, two of them, theology and philosophy, being outside the school, but the other two, literature and history, being very much the concern of the school. " It is to these subjects that the school must turn if it is seeking for higher ends." The schoolmaster is indeed in a quandary over his catering : one set of dishes contain no vitamins, and the other cannot be digested by the immature. May one refer Sir Richard to one of his own principles, " the cross-fertilization of theory and experience ", and suggest that his experience of secondary-school organization is insufficient ?

In this review I seem to have kept entirely to the part of *advocatus diaboli*, never a very pleasing role. But the book is so challenging, and has been so widely read, that it calls for the most careful examination. Sir Richard Livingstone has done valuable work for adult education, and his prestige is such that all his words will carry weight. I hope the direction that he gives to the movement will not restrict its course to that of traditional culture. At a time when the future of education is being planned, it is above all things essential that our eyes should be turned forward and not back. Sir Richard bids us heed the origins of Western civilization, Palestine, and Greece. Let us then remember both Orpheus and Lot's wife.

SOME CHRISTMAS BOOKS, 1941

By S. B. LUCAS

THE Christmas Books received this year are very few in number. Nevertheless a number of publishing firms have risen nobly to the occasion, and the boy or girl who is dissatisfied with what is offered must be indeed hard to please.

Messrs. Blackie & Son, who understand this kind of thing so well, seem to be entitled to first place, and we will let Mr. Percy Westerman lead off. Colin Standish, well known to admirers of this author, appears again in *Standish Holds On* (4s. 6d. net). This time he is captured by members of the Karamoni (just the right name for a secret society) and finds himself on board their submarine and a witness of their ruthless piratical activities. They dope him with a noxious drug, but finally he gets the better of the villainous Devilinos in an aeroplane. Very thrilling, too, is Mr. Westerman's other new book, *War Cargo* (5s. net), in which more old friends appear. The ship " Golden Venture " sails from New Brunswick with a cargo of aeroplanes bound for Britain, and passes through many perils on the way. A wireless message purporting to come from Halifax but really sent by the enemy deceives the captain for a time, but the raider concerned is destroyed ; the story of the " Jervis Bay " is introduced ; attack from the air and danger from mines must be met ; but the convoy which is eventually joined arrives safely, even though the ship is stranded off Blackpool. A fine story of the mercantile marine.

It was no doubt inevitable that the events leading up to Dunkirk should be woven into a story for boys, and Major Charles Gilson has used his opportunities to good purpose in *Through the German Hordes* (4s. net). Tugwell, the young subaltern ; Sackville, staff officer ; McIvor, the brawny Highland sergeant ; Hawke, the Cockney private ; Stubbs, the R.A.F. pilot—all these are good to know. Their many adventures and the devices by which they escape capture make a most absorbing story which ends as a boat pushes away from Dunkirk. *Gallant Deeds of the War*, by Stanley Rogers (4s. net), gathers together some of the most outstanding achievements of the Navy, Army, and Air Force. The fight of the *Rawalpindi*, the battle of the River Plate, the navy at Narvic, and Dunkirk, come into the picture, as well as a number of thrilling incidents like holding a bridge, a colonel's adventure, heroic firemen, saving a

(Continued on page 572)

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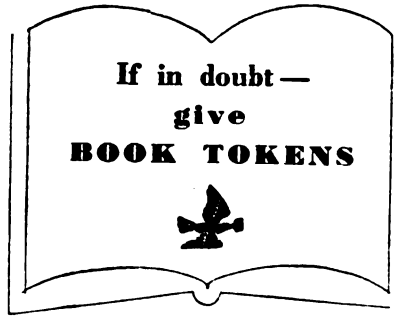

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bomber, a legless hero, a boy V.C.—all actual happenings graphically described in this author's dramatic style. Another book which relies on fact rather than on fiction is *Gertrude Bell*, by R. M. Ridley (3s. 6d. net). This inspiring story of a daring and adventurous life is just the kind of thing to appeal to young people, and the author, who has used numerous extracts from letters, has produced a very fascinating volume.

Miss Angela Brazil's latest effort is *Five Jolly Schoolgirls*, the story of the doings of five chums when their school was moved to a reception area. Here are no madcap episodes, but a pleasant story of credible happenings. In the holidays the girls separate, and we hear of various adventures in Cornwall, the Lake District, and elsewhere. The tale, in which the interest is well maintained, ends with the break-up of the party by the departure of one to India and another to America. Another book for girls is *Diana of the Ranges*, by C. Bernard Rutley (3s. 6d. net), in which a girl who has been to school in Paris goes out to Texas to join her father on a ranch. The latter is away on some mysterious errand, which turns out later to be a hunt for Aztec treasure, and Diana has to deal with the foreman, a sinister character who raises all sorts of trouble. She is, however, helped by James, the cowhand. All kinds of perils, including a narrow escape from death, make up a tale which will satisfy the most exacting adventure hunter.

" The Taming of the Twins " might be the alternative title of *The Twins at St. Clare's*, by Enid Blyton (Methuen, 5s. net). Pat and Isabel had been quite important people at their preparatory school, and they were annoyed when they were sent to St. Clare's instead of to another school to which their friends were going. So they determined to make the worst of things. But as the term went on they gradually found themselves won over by sensible treatment. There were, of course, the usual school-girl scrapes, which make exciting reading. The characters of both staff and pupils are well drawn, and the book deserves the popularity which it is sure to obtain.

Messrs. Nelson & Sons' Coronet Library offers exceptionally good value at the low price of 3s. net, and there are four new volumes to choose from. *The Secret of the Desert*, by Coutts Brisbane, tells how a Japanese adventurer with dreams of conquest makes an attempt to establish a secret base in the northern desert of Australia. He is, however, foiled by the daring resourcefulness of young men of the right sort. *Racing Wheels*, by J. W. Kenyon, features Roger Cardwell in a number of thrilling motor cycling exploits. There is much dirty work by German agents, but he triumphs over all difficulties and succeeds in an international contest. *Ann Thorne in America*, by Rosamond Bertram, tells more about the girl we met in *Ann Thorne—Reporter*. Sent to America to handle a ' story ', she does a useful piece of detective work on the way across, afterwards helping to unmask those responsible for two murders, and thus clearing an Englishman. *Gretel at St. Bride's*, by Mary K. Harris, is about an Austrian refugee who comes to an English school. She wins our sympathy all through in various adventures which culminate in the mystery of Willow Lodge.

The Children of Primrose Lane, by Noel Streatfeild (Dent, 7s. net), has a distinctive quality of its own. The six children who discover the empty house are very lifelike, and their differing characteristics are skilfully delineated. After they have taken possession, they find that a mysterious stranger is also there—a German spy, as it turns out. How they tracked him all the way to Sussex, and were themselves followed by secret service men who could not make out what they were up to, makes one of this favourite author's best and most exciting stories. It may be safely recommended. *A Toast to the King*, by Elizabeth Coatsworth (Dent, 5s. net), deals with the days of the Boston Tea Party. The conflict of loyalties which was then so sharp is very sympathetically set forth in the story of the three sisters who suffered for their adherence to the King's cause, though years later they became reconciled to calling themselves Americans. This is worth the attention of older girls.

Fleet Wings, by Guy Dempster (Lutterworth Press, 3s. 6d. net), takes us straight on to the *Ark Royal*, and is concerned with the fortunes of two midshipmen serving on that famous ship. They are in the thick of the attack on Narvic, and play a very resourceful part in the evacuation of Dunkirk. A German spy, who had been at the same preparatory school as the two main characters, dogs their footsteps all through the story, which is a lively tale, well above the average for excitement. Less believable is *People of the South Pole*, by K. Graham Thomson (Lutterworth Press, 3s. 6d. net), in which members of an Antarctic expedition are surprised to find a certain volcanic district inhabited by a primitive tribe of people, among whom are some English survivors from the wreck of a ship that had sailed from London in 1852. These are rescued after considerable bloodshed, and there are further adventures before they reach safety.

Romany, the popular B.B.C. broadcaster, has another volume entitled *Out with Romany by the Sea* (University of London Press, 5s. net). Tim, the farmer's boy, appears once more, and adventures in caves and on lonely islands, interspersed with interesting information about bird and animal life, make up the blend of amusement and instruction which have made this writer so acceptable to young people.

Two of the volumes before us are specially attractive because they deal with familiar things and lead young readers in a very interesting way to see how important they are. These are *The Seasons and the Woodman*, by D. H. Chapman, and *The Seasons and the Fisherman*, by F. Fraser Darling, each illustrated in detail by C. F. Tunnicliffe (Cambridge University Press, 6s. net each). The story of the woodman's year tells the life story of a tree, explains how to identify some of the principal varieties and describes their uses, as well as giving some account of the forester's work. The other book shows the sea as a home of living things, describes fresh water fishing and the fishing at the sea's edge, and passes on to deal with whaling, seal-fishing, and trawling. Either book is well suited to young people in their teens.

Those who want something of permanent value will certainly choose Hugh Walpole's three stories (*Jeremy*, *Jeremy and Hamlet*, and *Jeremy at Crale*) now first published as a single volume in *The Jeremy Stories* (Macmillan, 8s. 6d. net). It may be that this will meet the eye of some one who has not read these delightful works. In any case this is a form in which they will be highly valued.

A slender little book, *Ten-Minute Plays for Boys*, by A. E. M. Bayliss (Harrap, 3s. net), is worth the attention of those who are considering Christmas entertainments. There are eleven plays of varied interest, well conceived, and easy to memorize.

The very small people have not been forgotten. All children who have been well brought up know about Babar, and some fortunate ones still possess the six books with their delightful coloured pictures in which the adventures of this lovable little elephant are recorded. Now that enemy action has destroyed many of these coloured sheets, it is good to know that Enid Blyton has combined all the tales into a single volume entitled *The Babar Story-Book* (Methuen, 6s. net), which is really a full biography. Not only that, but the black and white illustrations have been redrawn from the original coloured volumes. This will be well loved in the nursery. Another book that simply *must* be in the stocking is *Ten Tales of Tim Rabbit*, by Alison Uttley (Faber & Faber, 2s. 6d. net). The little tales about Tim and the Scissors, the Weasels, the Scarecrow, the Umbrella, the Christmas Tree, and so on, are just the right length for bedtime stories (except that more than one will be demanded) and the illustrations by Alec Buckels are delightful. Next comes *Five O'Clock Tales*, by Enid

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Blyton (Methuen, 4s. net). This, containing sixty five-minute stories, offers particularly good value. Such titles as " The Prize Rabbit ", " The Sulky Sweets ", " The Five Lost Beans ", and " The Brownie and the Witch " are alluring in themselves, and it is certain that these little tales will be in great demand.

Tinker Tailor and other Nonsense Tales, by Margaret Baker, *The Dip Bucket*, by Dorothy Lovell (University of London Press, 5s. net each), and *The Adventures of Alfie*, by Katharine Tozer (John Murray, 6s. net) are admirably produced and illustrated. The stories are charming, too, and will delight the young folk. We welcome, too, three additions to *The Puffin Picture Books* (Penguin Books, 6d. each), *A Book of Trains*, by W. J. Bassett-Lowke and F. E. Courtney, *A Book of Insects*, by James Holland (text by Richard James), and *Flowers of the Field and Hedgerow and their Garden Cousins*, by Marion Rivers-Moore. These fully maintain the high standard set by their predecessors, and are sure to give pleasure.

Messrs. George G. Harrap explain that it has been impossible for them to obtain deliveries of their Christmas books in time for them to be reviewed in this article. They have, however, sent the following descriptions of some of their new books for children :

A Castle for John-Peter, by Ursula Williams (3s. net). When John-Peter was left a house in the country in his godfather's will, he expected to find a country cottage, but discovers instead an enormous and partly-ruined mansion standing in parkland, which unfortunately all belongs to the father of " The Pirates ", two small girls who have made ' a lair ' in John-Peter's castle and fiercely resent his intrusion. They finally make friends over the gamekeeper's goat, and have great times together in the old house.

He Went with Christopher Columbus, by Louise Kent (6s. net). This is the third book in the series of famous travellers' voyages, where fact and fiction are cleverly woven together. The details of the voyage of Columbus are accurate ; interest and excitement for boys and girls are added by the adventures of a young English boy, Peter Aubrey, who is one of the ship's company. Peter had gone with his uncle Diego de Medina Barrios to visit his dead father's Spanish estates ; on the voyage his uncle's servant had tried to kill him, but had killed the ship's boy instead. Peter took the boy's place, and to escape his uncle joined the company sailing with Columbus. He is left on an island in the West Indies, but, after some years of adversity and adventure, manages to return to England and resume control of his estates which had been taken over by his uncle and cousin.

Meetoo and the Little Creatures, by Howard Agg and Cecile Adair (6s. net). The story of the great adventure of Squirrel, Mouse, Hedgehog, Grasshopper, and Meetoo (the boy that every child would like to be) who, when the river rose, saved themselves by floating in a top-hat to the shore. Oakey Noah (the owner of the hat), who lived in a great oak tree, helped them, and they in turn were able to help him. The book contains delightful illustrations in colour and line.

Thirty Fathoms Deep, by Commander Edward Ellsberg (5s. net). A rousing story for boys about searching for treasure off the South American coast. Bob Porter finds in an old Spanish book an account of the sinking of the Spanish treasure ship *Santa Cruz* by Drake. His wealthy uncle finances an expedition to locate and retrieve the treasure. A lieutenant of the U.S. Navy is in charge and he takes four expert divers with him. Although the purpose of the expedition is kept secret, the ' interpreter ' and a member of the crew get wind of it and try to play their own hand. This leads to exciting adventure in addition to the thrills of deep-sea diving, all of which are founded on the author's own experience, and make the dangerous work intensely real to any boy.

Science

Organic Chemistry

By Dr. F. SHERWOOD TAYLOR. Third Edition. (10s. 6d. Heinemann.)

The third edition of this book is written for university students for whom it is thoroughly suitable. It might also be used for reference purposes by schools, although *A Short Organic Chemistry*, which is a simplified version, is more frequently used there. This latest edition is brought up to date by the inclusion of short notes on fermentation, sulphanilamide, ascorbic acid, nicotinic acid, and other substances which are becoming of great biochemical importance.

Higher Chemical Calculations

By A. J. MEE. (5s. Dent.)

Higher Chemical Calculations is a somewhat misleading title for this latest book by a well-known author, as it deals chiefly with physical chemistry and almost entirely neglects volumetric and gravimetric analyses. Except for this limitation the book will be found extremely useful for Higher School Certificate and University scholarship candidates. The majority of the problems are new, many are based on data from research work, whilst a few are from past examination papers. Excellent summaries of the principles of Physical Chemistry along with worked-out problems are given at the beginning of many of the chapters. This firm's publications are always attractively produced.

If women think like men . . .

Here is an extremely significant passage from a recent broadcast debate on "Do women think like men?":—"Whether or not we learn to distinguish between the processes of men's and women's minds will decide a good many of our educational problems. For instance, are we going to understand giving equal opportunities of education to men and women to mean that women should be educated on the same lines as men?"

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(b) Three JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS, of £60 to £40 a year.

(c) Two or more EXHIBITIONS of about £30 a year.

INTERNAL SCHOLARSHIPS. The following are awarded annually to boys already in the School:

(a) Two SENIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 a year, open to boys not less than 15 and not more than 17 on May 1.

(b) Two JUNIOR PLATT SCHOLARSHIPS of £50 to £30 a year, open to all boys in the School.

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The School Scholarships are tenable for the duration of the holder's school career.

The School Fees are £115 a year, with a Consolidated Fee of £5 a term to cover all necessary extras.

Further particulars may be had from the HEADMASTER, ALDENHAM SCHOOL, ELSTREE, HERTS.

BERKHAMSTED SCHOOL

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

AN Examination will be held in June, 1942, for three Entrance Scholarships of the value of £60, and Exhibitions of less amount.

Candidates must be under the age of 14 on June 1 immediately before the examination. The age of candidates will be taken into consideration in the examination.

Entries should be received by May 17. The School fees for Boarders are £133 per annum; 10 per cent reduction for sons of clergy.

Further information about Scholarships, copies of the School Prospectus, Forms of Entry, &c., can be obtained from the BURSAR, to whom inquiries regarding board and lodgings should also be addressed.

BRYANSTON SCHOOL,
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SEVEN Scholarships, £80 to £40 (including a Music Scholarship of £40): and to boys of good character and all round ability, three Bursaries £60 to £20 will be offered at the end of May, 1942. Particulars from the HEADMASTER'S SECRETARY.

BOOTHAM SCHOOL, YORK

EXAMINATION in March for Scholarships of value from £20 to £100. Entries by February 20th. Valuable Leaving Scholarships. Preparation for School and Higher Certificates, 1st M.B., Inter B.Sc., and University Scholarships.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

BRIGHTON COLLEGE

AN Examination is held each June to elect several Scholarships varying in value from £70 to £30 a year.

A number of Gill Memorial Scholarships and Exhibitions are offered each June to sons of Officers or Ex-Officers in H.M. Army. The highest of these awards will amount to half the total fees.

Full particulars on application to the HEADMASTER.

CANFORD SCHOOL, WIMBORNE

AN Examination will be held in June, for the awarding of Seven Scholarships, value £100 to £30, open to boys under 14 on June 1, 1941. Two of these Scholarships are open to boys under 14 years and 6 months on that date. In addition One Musical Scholarship and One Drawing Scholarship, value £40 each, open to boys under 14½, may be awarded. For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

THE CHELTENHAM LADIES' COLLEGE

AN EXAMINATION for Entrance Scholarships, value from £40 to £100, and Exhibitions, including a Music Scholarship, will be held in March, 1942. Candidates must be under 15 on July 31, 1942.

In addition to advanced work in all academic subjects the College provides special courses in Music, Art, Civics, Librarianship, and Domestic Science. There is a Domestic Science House where the girls can take a finishing course or be prepared for a special diploma in Domestic Science or Part I of the Preliminary State Examination for Nurses.

For further particulars apply SECRETARY, Ladies' College, Cheltenham.

CRANBROOK SCHOOL, KENT

Founded 1520
ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS

THE Scholarship Examination will be held on May 21 and 22, 1942; Entries up to May 11. Age limit 14½ on June 30. Six Scholarships, of £75, £50 (3) and £40 (2), together with two Exhibitions and two Bursaries, are offered annually. Total fees, with consolidated charge for extras, £103 10s. a year.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

CULFORD SCHOOL,
BURY ST. EDMUNDS

AN Examination for Scholarships (value £70–£30 p.a.) will be held in May next. Candidates must be between 13–14 on June 1, 1942. Entry forms and particulars from the HEADMASTER.

CRANLEIGH SCHOOL, SURREY

EXAMINATIONS, March 10, 11, 12; June 9, 10, 11, 1942, for Open Scholarships and Exhibitions, £100–£30, and for Music and Choral Scholarships, £50–£30. Age limit for Open and Choral Scholars under 14, for Music under 14½, on April 1 and July 1, 1942.

Bursaries for the sons of Clergy and Officers are available.

Details from HEADMASTER'S SECRETARY.

DEAN CLOSE SCHOOL, CHELTENHAM

AN Examination for Six Scholarships, varying from £80 to £25 per annum, will be held in June, 1941. Age limit 14½ years. Special Exhibitions each term for sons of Clergy and members of H.M. Services. Apply HUGH ELDER, M.A., Headmaster.

FELSTED SCHOOL

NINE Scholarships value £100–£30 will be offered for competition in March.

Particulars from the HEADMASTER, Felsted School, Goodrich Court, Ross-on-Wye.

GIGGLESWICK SCHOOL

SIX Scholarships, maximum value £70, will be offered in June. Full details from the HEADMASTER, Giggleswick School, Settle, Yorks.

HARROGATE COLLEGE
At Swinton, Masham, Ripon, Yorkshire

ENTRANCE Scholarships, value £80 to £30 per annum, will be offered as the result of an Examination to be held in March, 1942. Preliminary papers will be sent to the candidates' homes or present schools in February. Full particulars may be obtained from the HEADMISTRESS.

KING'S SCHOOL, CANTERBURY
Carlyon Bay, South Cornwall

SEVEN Entrance Scholarships, value £50—£70 will be offered in March.

FIFTEEN King's Scholarships and Entrance Scholarships value £25—£100 per annum, and

ONE Milner Memorial Scholarship value £100 per annum for five years, will be offered in June. The Milner Scholarship is open to sons of Colonial Civil Servants and others.

TWO Music Scholarships, value £50 per annum.

For full particulars apply to the HEADMASTER.

KING WILLIAM'S COLLEGE
ISLE OF MAN

SCHOLARSHIP Examination in May. Closing day for entries, May 1. The examination may take place at candidate's School. Ten Scholarships will be offered in 1942, in value from £100 to £50 a year. Also several minor scholarships not exceeding £40 a year available. For particulars apply to the PRINCIPAL, King William's College, Isle of Man.

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SCHOLARSHIPS

MATRICULATION AND OTHER EXAMINATION NOTICES,

FELLOWSHIPS. EXHIBITIONS, STUDENTSHIPS AND BURSARIES

LEIGHTON PARK SCHOOL
READING

SIX Open Scholarships value £84–£50: additional Exhibitions of £50–£40, for general ability, Music and Art, will be awarded in March. Basic fees, 150 gns. per annum, inclusive. —Apply to THE HEADMASTER.

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AN Entrance Scholarship Examination for boarders will take place in March, 1942. Exhibitions also awarded. Preference to candidates under 14. Music and Art taken into consideration. Particulars from Secretary. Last date of entry February 9.

LANCING COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS

ENTRANCE Scholarships will be offered for competition in May. Candidates must be over 12 years of age and under 14 on June 1.

(a) Six SCHOLARSHIPS (at least), Classical and Modern, varying from £100 to £50 per annum, according to merit and needs.

(b) Two CHORAL EXHIBITIONS of £30 per annum, open to all boys who can sing and read music.

Candidates will be examined at their Preparatory Schools.

For information apply to the HEADMASTER, Lancing College, Moor Park, Ludlow, Shropshire.

THE LEYS SCHOOL, CAMBRIDGE
Temporarily removed to the
ATHOLL PALACE HOTEL, PITLOCHRY, PERTHSHIRE

THREE or four Open Foundation Scholarships of £100 a year, and six other Scholarships and Exhibitions of between £25 and £75 a year will be awarded in June, 1942, if suitable candidates of sufficient merit present themselves. Candidates must be under 14 on January 1, 1942. A large choice of subjects in the Final Examination is available, including Science, German, and Music. Scholarships and Exhibitions may in certain cases be increased by such an amount as the circumstances of the Scholar may require. Full particulars may be obtained from the HEADMASTER.

The School premises in Cambridge having been taken over for hospital purposes, the School has removed for the duration of the war to the Atholl Palace Hotel, Pitlochry, Perthshire.

LOWTHER COLLEGE FOR GIRLS
Abergele, North Wales

Chairman: Sir RONALD MACLEAY, G.C.M.G.
Headmistress: Miss K. I. SAYERS, M.A., Cantab.

A SCHOLARSHIP Examination for Junior, Senior and Music Entrance Scholarships will be held on March 2, 3, and 4, 1942. Normal inclusive fees, £144 p.a.: maximum Scholarship, £80 p.a. Entries close February 11. For full particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS.

THE MOUNT SCHOOL FOR GIRLS
YORK

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions will be awarded on the result of an examination to be held in February, 1942.

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss R. Constance Nightingale.

MALVERN GIRLS' COLLEGE

MAJOR Scholarships will be awarded on the results of an examination held in March of the value of £60–£100, according to the standard attained by the candidates. Further minor Scholarships and Exhibitions will be awarded, of the nominal value of £10 each. These secondary Scholarships may be augmented to values varying with the financial needs of the parents. All candidates must be under 15 years of age on September 1, following the examination. A limited number of these Scholarships will be awarded to candidates offering Instrumental (string or woodwind) Music (no age limit), and to post-School Certificate candidates of outstanding merit (no age limit.)

For further particulars apply to the HEADMISTRESS, Miss I. M. BROOKS M.A. (Cantab.).

MALVERN COLLEGE

ENTRANCE Scholarship Examination will be held on March 3, 4 and 5, 1942. Up to five Scholarships of £100 and three or more of £50. A number of Exhibitions and Bursarships also will be offered to boys of all-round ability.

For particulars of these and certain Memorial Exhibitions apply to the HEAD MASTER, Malvern College, Malvern, Worcs.

Successful candidates will join the School in May or September.

OUNDLE SCHOOL

AN Examination for Entrance Scholarships is held annually in May or June.

For further particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, Oundle School, Northampton.

QUEEN ETHELBURGA'S SCHOOL,
STUDLEY ROYAL, RIPON

ONE Entrance Scholarship of £80 and two Exhibitions of £60 will be awarded in March, 1942. Candidates must be under 14 on September 1, 1942. Music Exhibitions may also be offered, and an occasional Bursary.

ROYAL HOLLOWAY COLLEGE
(University of London)

Principal: Miss J. R. BACON, M.A., Cambridge

THE LENT TERM commences on Saturday, January 10, 1942. The College prepares women students for the London Degrees in Arts and Science. Entrance Scholarships, from £40 to £80 a year, and several Exhibitions of not more than £35, tenable for three years, will be offered for competition in February, 1942. The last date for the receipt of entry forms is December 13, 1941. For further particulars apply to THE SECRETARY, Royal Holloway College, Englefield Green, Surrey.

RADLEY COLLEGE

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions varying in value from £120–£40 will be offered for competition in March, 1942. Candidates must be under 14 on March 1, 1942. The Examination will be held in two parts: (a) Elementary Papers at the Candidate's Preparatory School on March 9; (b) more Advanced Papers for selected candidates at Radley on March 17 and 18. Last day on which entries can be received March 2. Apply for particulars to THE WARDEN, Radley College, Abingdon, Berks.

ROEDEAN SCHOOL, KESWICK

SCHOLARSHIPS and Exhibitions will be awarded on the result of an examination to be held in May, 1942, for girls under 14. The value of each award will vary from £30 to £150 a year, according to the financial circumstances of the candidate.

Particulars and forms of application from the Headmistress's Secretary. Last date of entry, March 31st.

STOWE SCHOOL

TEN Scholarships and four Bursaries are offered every summer to boys under 14 on May 1. Examination 1942: May 27–29. Particulars from the HEADMASTER, Stowe School, Buckingham.

SEDBERGH SCHOOL

THE Examination for Ten Entrance Scholarships and Exhibitions, of the annual value of £120 to £40, will be held in May or June. Candidates must be under 14 years of age on January 1.

For further information apply to the HEADMASTER, Sedbergh School, Yorkshire.

WORKSOP COLLEGE, NOTTS.

AN Examination is held in May or June. Generally two Scholarships are offered of £60 each, two of £40, and two of £30. Candidates must be under 14 years of age. Full particulars and entry forms can be obtained from the HEADMASTER, Worksop College, Notts.

WREKIN COLLEGE,
WELLINGTON, SHROPSHIRE
SCHOLARSHIPS AND EXHIBITIONS

AN Examination is held annually, usually in June, when six Entrance Scholarships are offered for competition, value from 40 to 100 guineas, also six Exhibitions, value 30 guineas.

For particulars apply to the HEADMASTER, WALTER M. GORDON, M.A., Wrekin College.

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Registered Teachers, and others who have passed an examination satisfactory to the Council, are eligible for membership of the College. Particulars may be obtained from the Secretary.

DIPLOMA EXAMINATIONS

The Examinations of Teachers for the Diplomas of A.C.P. and L.C.P. are held during the Winter Vacations. The Regulations may be obtained from the Secretary.

PROFESSIONAL PRELIMINARY EXAMINATIONS

Preliminary Examinations for intending medical, dental, and pharmaceutical students are held in March, June, September, and December. The Regulations may be obtained from the Secretary.

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Two Scholarships of £50 and two of £25 will be awarded in March for September. Application should be made before February 15.

For particulars apply SECRETARY, 37 Landsdowne Road, Bedford.

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Founded 1900

Principal: Miss M. T. CRABBE,
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FOUNDED 1899

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Tel.: Euston 1086 and 1433

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Avoncroft has been taken over by the Ministry of Agriculture. We are pleased to inform readers of *The Journal of Education* that we have overcome the difficulties and the College is now settled at Grafton Manor. The latter is in the Bromsgrove area, so that our arrangements for school teaching practice, and our playing field and gymnasium are still available.

Prospectus and full particulars obtainable from the Principal.

COACHING

WOLSEY HALL, OXFORD (founded in 1894), prepares candidates by correspondence for all exams. leading to London University Degrees: Teaching Diplomas of Oxford, Cambridge, London, and other Universities; A.C.P., L.C.P.; Non-examination Courses on the History and Practice of Education and other subjects. Students are also prepared for Matriculation, Leaving Exams., Locals, Professional Prelims., &c. Tutorial Staff comprises 56 Graduate Teachers. Prospectus free from C. D. PARKER, M.A., LL.D., Director of Studies, Dept. E., WOLSEY HALL, OXFORD.

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Students are trained for the Examinations of the National Froebel Foundation.

Prospectuses and particulars as to Scholarships, Bursaries, and Grants from the Board of Education may be obtained from the SECRETARY.

The College has been evacuated to Knebworth House, Knebworth, Herts., and the Demonstration School has been opened as a boarding school at Little Gaddesden, near Berkhamsted, Herts.

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